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The Korea Association of Teachers of English
2009 International Conference

Across the Borders: Content-Based Instruction in the EFL Contexts

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Opening Address

Kyung Suk Kim

(Conference Chair, Kyonggi University)

Good morning, distinguished guests, colleagues and students! Welcome to the 2009 KATE International Conference. As chair of the conference, I'm privileged to announce the beginning of the conference in the presence of many ELT professionals and colleagues, from home and abroad.

The theme of the conference is "Across the Borders: Content-Based Instruction in the EFL Contexts." Content-based instruction is a true innovation to Korea as well as to most EFL countries although some countries have started years ago. Over the next two days, you will have great chances to broaden your insights on what will happen if and when English crosses the borders in the educational curriculum. In addition to the main theme, the conference will focus on the broad areas of English language teaching and learning such as second language acquisition, curriculum and materials development, methodology, teacher training, and testing. I believe all of you will share invaluable opportunities in deepening your professional experience by attending the ultimate quality paper presentations and discussions.

I'd like to express my sincere thanks from the bottom of my heart to all those who have given utmost efforts to make this conference possible. The 2009 KATE International Conference Committee has worked so hard over the last six months. And I am sure that they are really proud of their time and energy by witnessing our devoted participants across the country and from all around the world. My deepest gratitude must also go to Ewha Womans University for all their assistances.

Last but not least, I'd like to thank you all of you, presenters, discussants, and attendees, who I'm truly convinced will play a crucial role in making this conference a great success. It is my sincere wish that all of you will have a most fulfilling and rewarding time by actively participating in the conference. Please allow me to seek your generous consideration in advance for what may not go as planned. We will try our best to meet any special needs you may have during the conference. Thank you again for your participation and support for the most dynamic ELT association in "Dynamic Korea."

Welcoming Address

Byung Kyoo Ahn

(President of KATE)

It is with the utmost pleasure that I welcome you all to the annual KATE international conference. As president of this organization, I am deeply honored to be providing the welcoming address to so many esteemed ELT colleagues.

The KATE international conference is the biggest event in our organization's calendar and will certainly provide a great opportunity for the interchange of ideas and methods. The theme of this year's conference is "Across the Borders: Content-Based Instruction in the EFL Context." As you are all aware, this type of student-centered learning aims to elicit meaningful input and provide learners with interesting and engaging materials across a broad range of disciplines while encompassing all of the skills and techniques we need to motivate and inspire our students. I am sure that this topic, being so integral to the EFL field, will promote much discussion. We are extremely fortunate to have so many distinguished speakers in attendance who will surely open us all up to new perspectives.

We are gathered here at the illustrious Ehwa Womans University and I am indebted to university President Bae Yong Lee for all of the assistance and hospitality that we have received while preparing this conference. I would also like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to all of the KATE committee and board members; without your hard work, this conference would not be taking place. I thank you for your continued energy, enthusiasm, and time devoted to organizing this event.

On this note, I would like to extend my warmest thanks to our keynote and plenary speakers: Donna Brinton of Soka University of California; Paul Nation of Victoria University in Wellington; Yuko Butler from the University of Pennsylvania; Catherine Wallace from the University of London; and Richard Schmidt from the University of Hawaii at Manoa. I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to all the participants in this conference; to those who are presenting papers, chairing sessions, and finally, and so importantly, to everyone in attendance.

The running of professional organizations such as KATE is also only made possible by benefactors and their kind financial support. I wish to convey our gratitude to the following sponsors for their continuous generosity: Korea Research Foundation; Chungdahm Learning, International Communication Foundation; English Mou Mou; Neungyule Education; Hyundae Yong-O-Sa; Daekyo; and the British Council in Korea.

I will now conclude my welcome by simply wishing that you all enjoy the conference. I hope that you will find it to be both inspiring and enriching through hearing new ideas and meeting like-minded professionals from around the world. Thank you so much.

Congratulatory Speech

Dr. Bae-Yong Lee
(President, Ewha Womans University)

I would like to express my congratulations on the opening of the KATE 2009 International Conference. It is an honor to have such accomplished scholars and educators in the core of 21st century English education at Ewha Womans University. I would like to welcome everyone including Dr. Byung Kyoo Ahn, president of The Korean Association of Teachers of English.

Today, English education has progressed beyond the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. Now we have come to a point where we aim for true communication in English as a global language. KATE has been leading English language learning and teaching and making improvements in the English education field in Korea. In this respect, I hope that the conference today will be the place where the fundamental issues of the dynamically changing field of English education and its future directions will be presented.

Ewha Womans University has strived for producing competitive citizens in the global world by investing massively in English education. As a result, in the 2009 Asian University Rankings conducted by Chosun Ilbo and QS (Quacquarelli Symonds), a British company specializing in educational review, Ewha Womans University has especially been acknowledged on Internationalization index, ranking 4th among universities and higher education institutions in Korea. Moreover, at the town-hall meeting in February held with the visit of U.S. Secretary of State, Hillary Clinton, Ewha students were able to show their capability as leaders of the new world by carrying out active discussions with Secretary Clinton.

This brings significance to Ewha Womans University to hold the KATE International conference today where we will be discussing various topics on English education at the college level. I hope that the discussions in this conference will lead toward mutual understanding of each other through communication beyond the borders of language. I would, once again, like to express my gratitude to all of you who have attended the 2009 KATE International Conference and sincere wishes for a successful conference.

Dr. Bae-Yong Lee
(President, Ewha Womans University)

Main Sessions

Day 1 (July 3, Friday)

Time	Place	Event
9:00-9:30	ECC B1 Reception area between ECC B142 & ECC B146	Registration
9:30-10:00	ECC B146	Moderator: Ki Wan Sung (Kyung Hee Univ.) **Opening Ceremony** **Opening Address** Kyung Suk Kim (Conference Chair) **Welcoming Address** Byung Kyoo Ahn (President of KATE) **Congratulatory Speech** Bae Yong Lee (President of Ewha Womans Univ.)
10:00-12:00	ECC B146	Moderator: Isaiah WonHo Yoo (Sogang Univ.) **Keynote Speech** **A brief history of the world according to CBI** Donna Brinton (Soka Univ. of California, USA)
12:00-13:00	Cafeteria	Lunch
13:00-13:50	ECC B142	**Plenary Speech A** Moderator: Mi Jeong Song (Seoul National Univ.) **Content-based instruction and vocabulary learning** Paul Nation (Victoria Univ. of Wellington, New Zealand)
	ECC B146	**Plenary Speech B** Moderator: Yeon Hee Choi (Ewha Womans Univ.) **Primary English in East Asia: Issues in adapting ELT methods in local contexts** Yuko Butler (Univ. of Pennsylvania, USA)
13:50-14:10		Break
14:10-15:40	ECC B151-B221	**Concurrent Sessions**
15:40-16:00		Break
16:00-17:30	ECC B151-B221	**Concurrent Sessions**
17:40-19:40	ECC B4 Hall Lee Sam Bong (이삼봉홀)	**Reception**

Main Sessions

Day 2 (July 4, Saturday)

Time	Place	Event
9:30-10:20	ECC B146	Moderator: Hoo Dong Kang (Chinju National Univ. of Education) **Keynote Speech** **Teaching English in a globalized World: A case for critical reading in content-based instruction** Catherine Wallace (Univ. of London, UK)
10:20-10:30		Break
10:30-12:00	ECC B151-B153	**Concurrent Sessions**
12:00-13:00	Cafeteria	Lunch
13:00-14:30	ECC B151-B153	**Concurrent Sessions**
14:30-14:50		Break
14:50-15:40	ECC B146	Moderator: Youngkyu Kim (Ewha Womans Univ.) **Plenary Speech** **The noticing hypothesis: Implications for content-based instruction** Richard Schmidt (Univ. of Hawaii at Manoa, USA)
15:40-16:00		Break
16:00-17:30	ECC B151-B153	**Concurrent Sessions**
17:40-18:00	ECC B146	**General Meeting**

Paper Sessions
Session A: Second Language Acquisition (ECC B151)

Day 1 (July 3) Afternoon Session

Session Chair: Ja Yeon Lim (Univ. of Seoul)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:10-14:40	Recasts in meaning-based EFL classrooms: Learner uptake and characteristics of recasts Ji Hyun Kim (Keimyung Univ., Korea)
14:40-15:10	Language alternation and medium-repair among novice speakers of English Tim Greer (Kobe Univ., Japan)
15:10-15:40	Korean-Chinese students' advantages in learning English Chenghao Li (No.1 Korean ethnic senior middle School, China)
15:40-16:00	Break
Session Chair: Yoon Hee Na (Chonnam National Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	Distributional input properties and second language development Sang Ki Lee (Seoul National Univ., Korea)
16:30-17:00	Sociocultural approach to nonnative speaker interactions: Peer scaffolding instances as a learning tool Hye Kyung Ryoo (Daegu Univ., Korea)
17:00-17:30	A discourse analysis of language scaffolding in cross-age tutoring Ji Young Kim (Univ. of Florida, USA)

Session B: Curriculum/Materials (ECC B152)

Day 1 (July 3) Afternoon Session

Session Chair: Myong Su Park (International Graduate School of English)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:10-14:40	Designing history lessons for ESL learners EunYoung Park, Young-Mee Suh & Yoo-Sun Jung (Indiana Univ., USA)
14:40-15:10	Developing an immersion dictionary for CALP Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea National Univ. of Education, Korea)
15:10-15:40	Needs and performance in hospitality English as perceived by hotel practitioners Wenyuh Shieh (Minghsin Univ. of Science and Technology, Taiwan)
15:40-16:00	Break
Session Chair: Hye Jung Kim (Kwangju Women's Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	Magic's in the music: So's the history, culture, and English Lawrence White (Kookmin Univ., Korea)
16:30-17:00	How can English teachers choose good reading materials for science majors? Akiko Hagiwara & Mao Naito (Tokyo Univ. of Pharmacy and Life Sciences, St. Marianna Univ. School of Medicine, Japan)

Session C: ELT Methodologies (ECC B153)

Day 1 (July 3) Afternoon Session

Session Chair: Kyeong-Hee Rha (Chungbuk National Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:10-14:40	Motivational response patterns during task-based group work: a complex systems perspective Glen Thomas Poupore (Korea Univ., Korea)
14:40-15:10	Task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach in EFL contexts Choon Kyong Kim (St. Cloud State Univ., USA)
15:10-15:40	The effects of topic preparation and vocabulary instruction on L2 listening comprehension Ji Hye Kwon (International Graduate School of English, Korea)
15:40-16:00	Break
Session Chair: Hee Kyung Lee (Yonsei Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	Learn English kids: Online learning materials for the elementary English classroom Michael Bowles (British Council, Korea)
16:30-17:00	Online communities and EFL instruction Ji Hyung Hong & Sean M. Witty (Univ. of Florida, USA)
17:00-17:30	Out-of-classroom writing in English of Korean students Young Hwa Lee (Sun Moon Univ., Korea)

Session D: Teacher Training (ECC B219)

Day 1 (July 3) Afternoon Session

Session Chair: Seong Hee Choi (Kyonggi Institute of Technology)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:10-14:40	Enhancing EFL learner's reading comprehension through the CoSM instruction Pi Ching Chen & Pin Fen Chen (Chang Jung Christian Univ., Taiwan)
14:40-15:10	Discerning the characteristics of the professional development-inclined NEST David E Shaffer (Chosun Univ., Korea)
15:10-15:40	In-service teacher development: Theory and practice David Hayes (Brock Univ., Canada)
15:40-16:00	Break
Session Chair: Yu Sun Kang (Korea Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	Content-based instruction: A model of teacher training program Longxing Wei (Montclair State Univ., USA)
16:30-17:00	A content-based teacher training program: A case study of a high school English teacher's experience Eun-Ju Kim (Chung-Ang Univ., Korea)

Session E: Evaluation /Testing (ECC B220)

Day 1 (July 3) Afternoon Session

Session chair: Tae Il Pae (Yeungnam Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:10-14:40	Speaking tests in advanced EFL conversation courses James Trotta (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies, Korea)
14:40-15:10	Teachers' views on the online student evaluations of teaching Shih hsien Yang (National Formosa Univ., Taiwan)
15:10-15:40	Testing Korean EFL learners' collocational competence: types of item formats and receptive-productive dimension of vocabulary knowledge Sumi Han (Seoul National Univ., Korea)
15:40-16:00	Break
Session Chair: Kyong Hyon Pyo (Dankook Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	Test preparation in English speech contests Na Hee Kim & Dong Il Shin (Chung-Ang Univ., Korea)
16:30-17:00	Criterion online writing evaluation service Peter Kim (EduCherryDongA, Korea)

Session F: Applied Linguistics (ECC B221)

Day 1 (July 3) Afternoon Session

Session chair: Eun Joo Lee (Ewha Womans Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:10-14:40	Korean elementary school students' EFL learning demotivation Tae Young Kim & Hyo Sun Seo (Chung-Ang Univ., Korea)
14:40-15:10	Content and language in Asia-Beyond the N. American and European models Robert John Dickey (Gyeongju Univ., Korea)
15:10-15:40	Preparations for practicing effective English immersion program in Korea Seong Su Kim (English Mou Mou, Korea)
15:40-16:00	Break
Session Chair: Joohae Kim (Korea Digital Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	A study on the analyses methods of vocabulary difficulty of English textbooks and fairy tales booklets Gyu Hyung Lee, Ha Eung Kim & Yong Hun Lee (Hannam Univ., Woosong Univ., Chungnam National Univ., Korea)
16:30-17:00	From nonparticipation to participation: Role of teacher in EFL college students' class participation Hoe Kyeung Kim & Soyoung Lee (Cleveland State Univ., USA, Ewha Womans Univ., Korea)

Day 1 (July 3) Poster Sessions (ECC B4 Multi-purpose Hall/다목적홀)

Session Chair: Hyun Sook Yun (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
13:50-16:00	Varieties of presentations ideas for your students G. Benjamin White (Transworld Institute of Technology, Taiwan)
	The effect of lexical modification on Korean learners' English listening comprehension Eun Ha Hwang (Korea Univ., Korea)
	Developing materials using onomatopoeic expressions to facilitate native-like language use Ju Hyeon Park & Ji Ho Park (International Graduate School of English, Korea)
	A critical review of online EBS English courses Han Na Lee (Chung-Ang Univ., Korea)
	The effect of background knowledge on EFL learners' reading comprehension Pei-Shi Weng (National Chiayi Univ., Taiwan)

Day 1 (July 3) Panel Discussions (ECC B146)

Session Chair: In Jae Lim (Konkuk Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:10-15:10	**Implementing the adjunct CBI model in Korean universities** Isaiah WonHo Yoo (Organizer) (Sogang Univ., Korea) Anders McCarthy (Sogang Univ., Korea) Paul Suh (Sogang Univ., Korea)
Session Chair: HiKyoung Lee (Korea Univ.)	
16:00-17:00	**Teaching writing to English language learners** Suzie Kim Oh (Organizer) Using thinking maps to support student writing Suzie Kim Oh (Los Angeles Unified School District, USA) Teaching academic English for English language learners Anna E. L. Chee (California State Univ., USA) Effective essay writing instruction and preparation for university-bound high school students John Thomas Regan (Seoul Global High School, Korea)

Session A: Second Language Acquisition

Day 2 (July 4) Morning Session (ECC B151)

Session chair: Tae Young Kim (Chung-Ang Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
10:30-11:00	Does perception inform production? A case of Cantonese ESL learners Alice YW Chan (City Univ. of Hong Kong, Hong Kong)
11:00-11:30	Dual transfer of Korean-Chinese bilinguals in English learning Sung Ok Nam (Yanbian Univ., China)
11:30-12:00	How to deal with vocabulary problems in L2 communication? Su Ja Kang (Pai Chai Univ., Korea)

Day 2 (July 4) Afternoon Session (ECC B151)

Session chair: Kyoung Rang Lee (Sejong Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
13:00-13:30	Taiwan-Mandarin EFL students' acquisition of English metaphoric and idiomatic expressions Hsiu Min Yu (Chung Hua Univ., Taiwan)
13:30-14:00	Phone English instruction: how it works and how effective it is Marilou Sabado (Neungyule Education, Korea)
14:00-14:30	Korean learners' knowledge of the English ditransitive, transitive construction in sentence comprehension Jin Han (Univ. of Hawaii at Manoa, USA)
	Break
Session Chair: Soyoung Lee (Inha Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	Language transfer in L2 and L3 learning Zhen Ai Zhang (Yanbian Univ., China)
16:30-17:00	A measurement of the lexical ability of Korean Univ. Students with hearing and visual impairment Jeong Wan Lim (Daegu Univ., Korea)

Session B: Curriculum/Materials

Day 2 (July 4) Morning Session (ECC B152)

Session chair: Young In Moon (Univ. of Seoul)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
10:30-11:00	An overview of writing programs in U.S. universities Soo Kyung Cho (Seoul National Univ., Korea)
11:00-11:30	The English article use by non-native English teachers in Korea Hyun Ah Ahn (Seoul National Univ., Korea)
11:30-12:00	International graduate students' needs in English listening and speaking skills Yoo-Ree Jung, Hee Sung Jun & Hye Won Lee (Iowa State Univ., USA)

Day 2 (July 4) Afternoon Session (ECC B152)

Session chair: Ki Wan Sung (Kyung Hee Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
13:00-13:30	The role of English proficiency in Chinese learners' complaints Chi Yin Hong & Su Chin Shih (Diwan Univ., National Kaohsiung Normal Univ., Taiwan)
13:30-14:00	European language education models: Implications for Korea Andrew Edward Finch (Kyungpook National Univ., Korea)
14:00-14:30	The policy of English education and its effect in China Zongzhi Huang (Division of Ethnic Minorities Education, China)
	Break
Session Chair: Shin Hye Kim (Keimyung Univ.)	
16:00-16:30	A study on middle school students' perceptions of English punctuations (conducted in Korean) Jeong Won Lee & Mi Jin Kim (Chungnam National Univ., Korea)
16:30-17:00	A Study of comparative claims in U.S. culture and language textbooks Eugene Spindler (Hannam Univ., Korea)

Session C: ELT Methodologies

Day 2 (July 4) Morning Session (ECC B153)

Session chair: Kyo Soo Sun (Kwangju National Univ. of Education)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
10:30-11:00	Teacher learning within the curricular reform context: A case study of an English pre-service teacher's practicum experience in South Korea Kyung Ja Ahn (Seoul National Univ., Korea)
11:00-11:30	Applicability of language-enriched instruction to English-mediated content courses for postgraduate students in EFL contexts Jae Bum Kim (International Graduate School of English, Korea)
11:30-12:00	Teachers' attitudes toward the English language: a case of Korean public elementary school teachers Jeong Ah Lee (The Ohio State Univ., USA)

Day 2 (July 4) Afternoon Session (ECC B153)

Session chair: Eun Joo Kim (Ewha Womans Univ.)	
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
13:00-13:30	A study on the effectiveness of English as the medium of instruction in the Korean context Mi Sun Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies, Korea)
13:30-14:00	Collaborative dialogues during Korean-English language exchange: How language-exchange create a context for language learning Tae Youn Ahn (Univ. of Washington, USA)
14:00-14:30	Integration of e-learning and m-learning in teaching EFL in Japan Hiroyuki Obari (Aoyama Gakuin Univ., Japan)
	Break
Session Chair: Sun Hee Kwon (Busan Univ. of Foreign Studies)	
16:00-16:30	A new path to second language learning: Critical learning program Steve Lee (CDI, Korea)
16:30-17:00	Strategy and L2 reading: A case study of a Korean student's reading difficulty in US classrooms Ji Hyun Jeon (Pusan National Univ., Korea)
17:00-17:30	Effects of an overseas language program: A case study of an integration program for Korean elementary and middle school students in Singapore Hyun Yang (International Graduate School of English, Korea)

Day 2 (July 4) Workshops (ECC B146)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter	Moderator
10:30-11:30	**I can't use English in the classroom-My students don't speak English** Donna Brinton (Soka Univ. of California, USA)	Kyung Sook Yeum (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
13:00-14:00	**Vocabulary and content-based communication activities** Paul Nation (Victoria Univ. of Wellington, New Zealand)	Dong Kwang Shin (Korea Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)

A Brief History of the World According to CBI

Donna M. Brinton (Soka University of California)

Content-based instruction (CBI) has its roots in both the languages across the curriculum movement and immersion education. As an approach, it first appeared on the scene of English language teaching (ELT) in Canada and the U.S. in the late 1970's. This is followed shortly by the first book-length treatment of CBI, *Language and Content*, by Bernard Mohan (1986). Since that time, CBI has spread rapidly throughout the world, taking hold in both the ESL and EFL contexts. In this talk, Donna Brinton traces the historical and geographical diffusion of CBI, discusses ways in which the approach has flexed to adapt to local contexts, and examines its applicability to the EFL context, both in Korea and elsewhere.

Content-Based Instruction and Vocabulary Learning

Paul Nation (Victoria Univ. of Wellington)

Content-based instruction may require learners to have a large vocabulary size, and also to develop the technical vocabulary of the subject areas that they study. Native-speakers of English involved in content-based learning bring a large vocabulary size to this learning, so that only a small number of technical words are likely to be outside their current vocabulary knowledge.

However, vocabulary knowledge is a major factor in content-based instruction for learners of English as a second or foreign language. This paper examines the ways in which vocabulary learning can be helped in message-focused activities, and also through deliberate learning. A potential weakness of content-based instruction is that formal attention to language features may be neglected. Within a content-based course, as within a normal language course, about a quarter of the course time should be devoted to deliberate study. This deliberate study should include vocabulary learning.

Content-based instruction does provide very useful opportunities for vocabulary learning, mainly through opportunities for interaction, through problem-based generative use, and through the use of lexical relationships that have a positive effect on vocabulary learning.

Primary English in East Asia:
Issues in Adapting ELT Methods in Local Contexts

Yuko Goto Butler (University of Pennsylvania)

As many East Asian countries and regions began conducting English education at the primary level, popular English Language Teaching (ELT) methods, including Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), have been introduced in primary school classrooms. Various related approaches, designs, and procedures have also been widely employed. However, the direct adaptation of such methods and approaches, designs, and procedures does not always work well. In this talk, I will address a number of complicated local factors which need to be given due consideration when popular ELT methods are implemented in East Asian classrooms. By drawing examples primarily from English education at the primary school level in select East Asian countries, such as South Korea, Japan, and Taiwan, I will discuss how and why the "adaptation" of ELT methods is necessary in such countries.

Teaching English in a Globalized World:
A Case for Critical Reading in Content-Based Instruction

Catherine Wallace(Reader in Education, Institute of Education, University of London)

In my presentation I shall argue that teachers of English can also act as teachers of other disciplinary subjects both at school or university level. My focus will be on the teaching of reading and I shall argue that we should see the teaching of reading and the teaching of the content areas as mutually reinforcing. Different disciplines involve the use of different genres and registers and invoke different reading stances. This means that students who have English as a foreign language need to be aware that ways of reading vary depending on the curriculum area, the context of situation and reader purpose. Throughout my talk I shall make a particular case for the importance of critical reading in a world which increasingly requires flexible, creative and critical users of English across subject disciplines..

The Noticing Hypothesis: Implications for Content-Based Instruction

Richard Schmidt (The University of Hawaii at Manoa)

I. Introduction

The Noticing Hypothesis –an hypothesis that input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered (Schmidt, 1990, 2001)—has been around now for about two decades and continues to generate experimental studies, suggestions for L2 pedagogy, and controversy. To many people, the idea that SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and become aware of in target language input seems the essence of common sense, while others consider the hypothesis to be undesirably vague, lacking in empirical support, or incompatible with well-grounded theories. In this talk I will review the evidence for the hypothesis, as well the major objections that have been raised against it from a variety of linguistic, psychological, sociocultural, and philosophical perspectives. I will conclude the discussion of each point by considering any implications for language teaching that may or may not arise from it, especially with respect to content-based instruction.

2. Origins of the Noticing Hypothesis and evidence for it

In the 1980s, the dominant theories of language and of SLA overwhelmingly emphasized the unconscious nature of linguistic knowledge and unconscious processes of learning. Two case studies that I carried out in those years led me to question those assumptions. The first was a case study of an adult naturalistic acquirer of English to whom I gave the pseudonym "Wes" and whose acquisition of English I documented over a period of several years (Schmidt, 1983). Wes was a remarkably good learner of English in many ways in many ways. His pronunciation, was good from the beginning, and he developed quickly along the dimensions of fluency, lexical development, listening comprehension, conversational ability, and pragmatic appropriateness. His development in the area of morpho-syntax was very limited, however. I did not know and still do not know the reason for this, but one possible explanation might be that he didn't care much for the small grammatical details of language, didn't notice them, or in some cases where he did notice them he was unable to figure them out correctly.

A second case study concerned my own learning of Portuguese during a five month stay in Brazil (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). I took a class for five weeks and the rest of my language learning was through interaction with native speakers. The results of this study indicated that classroom instruction was useful, but frequency in input was also important. In addition, some forms that were frequent in input were still not acquired until they were consciously noticed in the input. This was the real origin of the Noticing Hypothesis, the claim that learner must attend to linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to if they are to become "intake." In addition, we found although I was frequently corrected for my grammatical errors in conversation with native speakers, in many cases this seemed to have no effect because I was usually unaware that I was being corrected. This suggested a slightly different hypothesis that we called "noticing the gap," the idea that in order to overcome errors, learners must make comparisons between their own output and the target language made available through input.

Some related ideas, conceptual distinctions, and general support from the general psychology:

- Consciousness as intention (incidental vs. intentional learning). Claim: Incidental learning is possible and often effective, but deliberately paying attention is facilitative and may be necessary in some cases.
- Consciousness as attention. Claim: People learn about the things that they pay attention to and don't learn much (if anything) about things they do not pay attention to.
- Consciousness as awareness ("noticing," "understanding"). Claim: Subliminal perception is possible, but subliminal language learning is not (no learning without noticing). Claim: There is evidence for implicit learning as well as for a facilitative effect for conscious understanding.

Some associated ideas in SLA:

- A resurgence in interest in basic issues concerning implicit and explicit learning (for example, the work of Peter Robinson, Rod Ellis, Nick Ellis, and Jan Hulstijn)
- Rod Ellis' proposals for form-focused instruction
- Merrill Swain's output hypothesis
- Bill VanPatten's proposals for input-processing instruction
- Michael H. Long's revised interaction hypothesis
- Gass & Mackey's (2006) model of interaction and learning

Some supportive studies:

- Leow (1997, 2000) used a crossword puzzle task to manipulate learners' attention. Results: those who exhibited a higher level of awareness ("understanding") learned most, and there was no learning in the absence of "noticing."
- Mackey (2006) used multiple measures of noticing and development to investigate whether feedback promotes noticing of L2 forms in a classroom context and whether there is a relationship between learners' reports of noticing and learning outcomes. Findings: (1) learners report more noticing when feedback was provided, and learners who exhibited more noticing developed more than those who exhibited less noticing.
- Izumi (2002) conducted a controlled experimental study to compare the effects of output and enhanced input on noticing and development. Findings: Output subjects demonstrated more noticing and more learning than controls; enhanced input subjects exhibited more noticing but not more learning.

3. Major challenges and objections to the Noticing Hypothesis

- Objection 1: The temporal granularity of diary studies is too coarse. Finer grained analyses of the language learning problem and the construct of attention are required. (Tomlin and Villa, 1994)
- Objection 2: Of the three functional subsystems of attention (alertness, orientation, detection), detection is crucial – but detection does not require awareness. (Tomlin and Villa, 1994; Williams, 2005)
- Objection 3: Attention/awareness may be necessary for some kinds of learning but not others. (Schachter, 1998; Schwartz, 1993)
- Objection 4: Attention to environmental stimuli does not play a direct role in acquisition because most of what constitutes linguistic knowledge is not in the input to begin with. (Carroll 2006; Truscott, 1998).
- Objection 5: Language is a social object, not a mental one (Block, 2003).

4. Some implications for content-based instruction

Virtually all the evidence for the Noticing Hypothesis comes from studies of learning from input and interaction (induction). It is not a justification for a return to a structural syllabus or deductive grammar-based teaching. Awareness alone is clearly inadequate. We all know people who know something about a language but can neither understand nor speak it.

On the other hand, we agree with Lyster (2007) that content-based instruction and other input-based approaches that draws students' attention only incidentally to language will promote primarily lexically oriented learning and do not ensure the learning of less salient but crucial morphological and syntactic features of the language. Lyster advocates a "counter-balanced approach" that recognizes the important roles of both cognition and social interaction. Ellis (1994) also argues that an effective learning environment must cater to all aspects of language learning. Explicit skills are necessary for deep elaborative processing of semantic and conceptual representations, but naturalistic settings provide maximum opportunities for exposure and motivation.

Thornbury (1997) has proposed a variety of reconstruction and reformulation activities that address the principle of "noticing the gap" in writing, and the enormous and still growing literature on "recasts" addresses the same issues in speaking.

Instruction may work mainly indirectly in L2 learning, through its role as a cognitive focusing device or advance organizer for learner attention. The interesting question of whether instructional intervention should precede or follow exposure to input has been addressed in a few studies, but not resolved.

Psychological studies of single task and dual task learning experiments suggest that some level of decontextualization is probably valuable in foreign language teaching, but do not provide a clear basis for choosing among very different pedagogical models, for example TBLT or parallel structural syllabus models, which require their own research base.

Learning takes place within learners' minds in a social context and cannot be completely engineered by teachers or texts.

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Richard Schmidt
Department of Second Language Studies
The University of Hawaii at Manoa
Phone: 808-956-2784
Email: schmidt@hawaii.edu

Biodata

Richard Schmidt grew up in Boston, Massachusetts and lived in Rhode Island, Lebanon, and Egypt before joining the University of Hawai`i, where has taught for over 30 years in the MA and PhD programs. His primary research areas are cognitive and affective factors in adult second and foreign language learning --such as the role of attention and the importance of motivation in learning. Other areas include sociolinguistics (macro and micro) and the particular problems of learning and teaching difficult, less commonly-taught languages. In addition to his position as Professor of Second Language Studies, he also is Director of the National Foreign Language Resource Center at the University of Hawaii. He is a past president of the American Association for Applied Linguistics and the 2009 recipient of the AAAL Distinguished Service and Scholarship Award.

Recasts in Meaning-based EFL Classrooms: Learner Uptake and Characteristics of Recasts

Ji Hyun Kim (Keimyung University)

I. Instruction

In second language acquisition (SLA) research, recasts have been most extensively investigated of the different forms of interactional corrective feedback. Research on recasts has revealed the positive but limited role of recasts in L2 development and their function as a trigger for learner noticing of gaps (Egi, 2007; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002). However, the operational definitions of recasts these studies have chosen are idiosyncratic. This makes any comparison with and/or generalization of the findings of these studies problematic. For instance, most experimental studies (Doughy & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Philp, 2003) utilized recasts as a preplanned focus on form. In other words, a target linguistic feature(s) was pre-selected and recasts were intensively provided for errors on the targeted feature. On the other hand, in most descriptive studies, recasts were used as incidental focus on form. Put differently, there were no pre-selected target linguistic features. Instead, recasts were provided for a broad range of errors, thereby affecting the degree of explicitness of recasts (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Kim, 2008). Moreover, within the pre-planned or the incidental recasts, recasts were provided in a different manner (Kim & Han, 2007; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2006), possibly serving different discourse functions (i.e., communicative function vs. corrective function) (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Han & Kim, 2008; Kim, 2008; Kim & Han, 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Considering that recasts can take different forms and serve different discourse functions, it is not desirable to conceive them as one entity. Instead, recasts must be treated in accordance with the diverse forms they take.

In light of the above, the current study aims to investigate the different characteristics of recasts and their relationship with learner uptake. This study has a three-fold goal. It aims to answer the following questions: 1) What are the characteristics of recasts provided in EFL classrooms?; 2) Is there a relationship between learner uptake and the characteristics of recasts? 3) Which characteristics – complexity, intonation, topic-continuity, segmentation, and prosodic emphasis – can predict learner uptake?

II. Methods

1. Context and participants

The data were collected from two different sites: nine intact high-beginning/intermediate EFL adult classes at a language school affiliated with a university (hereafter, site A) and four intermediate classes in a private language institute (hereafter, site B) in Seoul, Korea. The total number of student participants of the studies was 125 (88 students from Site A and 37 students from Site B). 9 teachers at Site A and 2 teachers at Site B participated in the study. The age range of the students was between 19 and 45.

2. Recording of Classroom Interaction

Each class was observed and videotaped. A wireless, clip-on microphone was attached to the teachers for audio-recording. Two small cassette recorders with built-in microphones were set up as audio backup.

3. Coding

The data consists of transcripts of recast episodes from the thirteen classrooms.

Following Nabei and Swain (2002), a recast episode (RE) is operationally defined as a sequence of one or more feedback turns, involving at least one recast. It starts with a student's nontargetlike utterance which then receives a recast from a teacher, and ends with a student's utterance indicating either a response to the recast or topic continuation. Six different categories were applied to identify the characteristics of recasts provided in the classrooms: (1) complexity, (2) intonation, (3) topic-continuity, (4) segmentation, (5) prosodic emphasis, and (6) elicitation of uptake.

III. Results

The total number of recasts observed was 246 (183 from Site A and 63 from Site B). Among the 246 recasts, 199 (80.9%) were simple recasts and 47 (19.1%) were complex recasts; 162 (65.9%) were declarative and 84 (34. 1%) were interrogative recasts; 169 (68.7%) recasts were provided without topic-continuity and 77(31.3%) recasts were provided with topic-continuity; 79 (31.3%) were segmented recasts and 167(67.9%) were non-segmented recasts; 178 (72.4%) recasts were provided without prosodic recasts and 68 (27. 6%) recasts were provided with prosodic stress. As far as the number of uptake is concerned, among the 246 recasts, 144 (58.5%) recasts were followed by the students' uptake, and 102 (41.5%) were not. With regard to the rate of successful uptake, among the 144 learner uptake, 96 (66.7%) were successful, and 48 (33.3%) were unsuccessful.

In order to examine whether learner uptake is related to the characteristics of recasts, a chi-square test[1] was performed for each characteristic: learner uptake was not significantly related to the number of changes made in the recasts, let alone to the existence of prosodic stress. On the other hand, intonation, topic-continuity, and segmentation were found to be related to insofar as recasts elicited learner uptake.

Assessing the characteristics that are predictive of learner uptake entailed the use of logistic regression analysis. Topic-continuity and segmentation are predictive of learner uptake, but not intonation. When considering successful uptake, prosodic emphasis was included as a variable because this study found a relationship between the latter and successful uptake. The analysis revealed that the four characteristics – intonation, topic-continuity, segmentation, and prosodic emphasis – were predictive of learner successful uptake.

VI. Discussion

Recasts in the current study tended to target a single error in a declarative form, without topic continuity, and without prosodic emphasis on the targeted linguistic features. In addition, the teacher provided more non-segmented recasts than segmented recasts. Some of the characteristics of recasts found in the study were similar to the findings from other ESL and EFL classes (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2006). However, some of the characteristics of recasts reported in the study were different from those in other classes, which eventually made recasts less explicit and more communicative in nature.

Intonation, topic-continuity, and segmentation were found to be relevant factors for learner uptake while complexity and prosodic emphasis were not related to learner uptake. When learner successful uptake was a concern, prosodic emphasis was added to one of the factors affecting the elicitation of successful uptake. Unlike Sheen (2006) and Loewen and Philp (2006), who considered complexity (i.e., number of changes made in recasts) to be a characteristic related to the rate of successful uptake. The number of changes made in recasts is also reported by laboratory studies as a factor affecting the role of recasts in L2 learning (Egi, 2007; Philp, 2003). It is often discussed on the basis of limited working memory capacity (Baddeley, Papagno, & Vallar, 1998): "recasts… that change the utterance in few ways… may be of more benefit to learners" (Philp, 2003, p. 118).

However, in this study, one factor needs to be considered to interpret the relation between complexity and the rate of learner successful uptake – the number of changes made in complex recasts. As reported in the result section, of 246 recasts, 199 were simple and 47 were complex recasts. Out of 47 complex recasts, only 7 recasts contained more than three corrections. In other words, a majority of the complex recasts (40 out of 7) included two changes. Since the exact number of changes contained in complex recasts in Sheen (2006) and Loewen and Philp (2006) were not mentioned, it seems difficult to account for the discrepancy in findings of this study compared with the other studies. Nevertheless, the fact that most of the complex recasts in this study contained two changes might diminish the difference in the rate of elicitation of recasts between simple recasts and complex recasts.

Intonation, topic-continuity, segmentation, and prosodic emphasis were found to be related to the rate of learner uptake/successful uptake, which is congruent with the findings from Sheen (2006) and Loewen and Philp (2006). Moreover, the results from logistic regression analysis allow us to predict

[1] An Alpha level of $p<.05$ was set for all chi-square and logistic regression analyses.

that recasts delivered in a declarative form, without topic continuity, and with segmentation and prosodic emphasis can possibly cause learner successful uptake.

I would like to return the issue I raised at the beginning of this study: recasts need to be differentiated and should not be treated as a single, monolithic type of corrective feedback when their functions are examined and discussed. Recasts can be made more/less implicit or explicit depending on how they are provided. This, however, does mean that explicit recasts can be more salient to learners, particularly if we consider that salience is subject to learner internal factors such as their proficiency levels, readiness, working memory capacity and so on (Philp, 2003).

This study, nevertheless, suggests that the explicitness of recasts can be adjusted when necessary in order to make them more effective in meaning-based classrooms. If, as some previous classroom studies claim, the implicit nature of recasts is a source of ambiguity for learners, this can be resolved by providing recasts in a more explicit way – using a declarative form, without adding further information and/or a question after the recast, segmenting and placing a prosodic stress on the corrected form. Morphosyntactic errors will be good candidates for such types of recasts. Morphosyntactic recasts are known to be less noticeable than lexical and phonological recasts (Mackey et al., 2000; Kim, 2008; Kim & Han, 2007; Sheen, 2006). Particularly, morphosyntactic features that have low communicative values (Han, 2004; VanPatten, 1996, 2004) may need to be pointed out in an explicit way in meaning-based classrooms to increase a chance to be noticed by students.

V. Conclusion

This study reveals that the majority of recasts provided in the classroom target a single error in a declarative form, without topic continuity, and without prosodic emphasis on the targeted linguistic features. In addition, non-segmented recasts more frequently arise than segmented recasts. The rate of learner successful uptake relates to how recasts are provided, which suggests that learner noticing of recasts can be dependent on the different forms recasts take. The more recasts are provided in an explicit way, the more possibilities there are for learners to notice recasts, supporting Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) and Sheen (2006).

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Ji Hyun Kim
Dept. of English Education
Keimyung University
Tel: (053) 580-5136
Email: jhk2024@kmu.ac.kr

Biodata

Ji Hyun Kim is an assistant professor (전임강사) in the Department of English Education at Keimyung University. Her research interests include teacher-student interaction, teacher oral and written feedback, and matches between teacher intent and learner perception.

Language Alternation and Medium-Repair among Novice Speakers of English

Tim Greer (Kobe University, Japan)

I. Introduction

This study employs the "radically emic" approach of Conversation Analysis to examine a corpus of naturally-occurring L2 interaction video-recorded both in and out of language classrooms. The focus is on how novice speakers of English use their first language (Japanese) to help accomplish intersubjectivity (mutual understanding) within an interactional context where the L1 use is socially and institutionally restricted. Adopting Gafaranga's notion of "medium-repair", I will maintain that the participants themselves do not treat every instance of L1 use within the L2 interaction as code-switching: names of Japanese places, people and food and brief instances of self-addressed speech, for example, are routinely inserted into the talk without the participants orienting to them as possible sources of trouble. On the other hand, various other cases of codeswitching do seem to be "repairable" for the students, as evidenced by their barely audible delivery or by the subsequent repetition of L1 talk in L2. These kinds of medium-repair appear in sequential environments which orient to the negotiation of meaning, and therefore foster the potential for learning. The study concludes by considering the potential advantages for teachers of allowing limited use of L1 during classroom discussion.

II. Background and data set

The corpus consists of approximately eight hours of unscripted L2-user talk video-recorded in a range of situations, including oral proficiency tests, classroom interaction, conversations-for-learning and mundane L2 talk. Some of the data involve novice ("non-native") speakers talking to expert ("native") speakers, while others involve novice-novice talk, including instances of paired conversation as well as multi-party talk. In general, the learners' first language is Japanese and the target language is English. In many of the situations, such as the classroom and test-talk, the participants are institutionally expected to communicate in English (Ford, 2009), although in reality they also use a good deal of Japanese.

III. Code-switching vs. Medium-repair

The notion of codeswitching has been examined from a variety of angles within sociolinguistics, but on the whole these approaches analyze language alternation from an outsiders perspective, prompting Gafaranga and Torras (2002) to call for a respecification of codeswitching as "not any occurrence of two languages within the same conversation, but rather any instance of deviance from current medium which is not oriented to (by participants themselves) as requiring any repair" (p. 1). In short, I take this to mean that if the speakers do not demonstrably notice an instance of language alternation by treating it as a potential source of interactional "trouble", then they are codeswitching.

Gafaranga (2007 p. 148) notes that "if language alternation is deviance from the medium, it is either repairable deviance (medium repair) or it is functional deviance (medium suspension)". In other words, in talk where English is the established medium, use of Japanese may constitute an accountable deviance from the norm, and participants demonstrate their recognition of this through the turn-by-turn details of their talk.

IV. Analysis

In general the participants orient to English as the primary medium of communication within the settings in the data I have collected. However, despite this implicit disapproval of the participants' L1, there were often occasions when the students' limited but strategic use of Japanese aided them in negotiating meaning, and this ultimately led to greater mutual intelligibility and in some cases even evidence of learning between novices. Although I have analyzed many examples of this phenomenon

from my corpus, there is only room to expound on one of these in detail here. In excerpt 1, A is undertaking a minor complaint sequence about her hometown (Otaru), having just told the others that it is far from the university they all attend.

Excerpt 1: Slope

```
01 A: =um:: a:nd umm (0.7) in Otaru they er
02    there are many (0.4) slope
03    (0.4)
04 D: Slope?
05    (0.8)
06 D: What slope?
07    (0.7)
08 A:→°°Sa- s::aka. saka.°°=
09 D: =A:::h, [ ah.  ah.      ]=
10 C:          [S(h)l(h)[ope. ]
11 A:                   [u(h)n].
12 D: =Okay. Slo- slope
13 A: so ah: umm (0.8) I (0.5) every (.) every
14    day hard (0.5) to walk
```

In line 2, A introduces a lexical referent (slope) that is potentially problematic for the recipients. Note that this word does exist as a loanword in Japanese (スロープ), but this generally refers to an artificial "ramp", particularly the sort that provides wheelchair access to a building. Such a usage is not hearable as lexically valid within the context of A's complaining stance, so the recipients are faced with the task of searching for some other (negative) meaning of "slope". After a gap of silence, D initiates repair on the referent, to which A does not immediately respond. In line 7, D enacts a second, more specific confirmation check, which is also met with a noticeable silence at a point where A should respond. Eventually, in line 8 A twice repeats the Japanese word for slope/incline/hill (*saka*).

Notice, however, that A is not prepared to readily go on record with her Japanese version. Her turn in line 8 is barely audible (indicated by °degree marks°) and the turn-initial cut-off and elongated first syllable indicate that she is reticent to say this word (presumably not because she in unsure of the word, but because of the institutional context of the English speaking test, in which the use of Japanese is restricted). The recipients, on the other hand, are quick to indicate that A's Japanese has economically resolved the interactional dilemma. D's response in line 9, is a series of change-of-state tokens, indicating that she has gone from "not-knowing" to "now-knowing" (Heritage 1984), and in overlap in line 10 C gives a laughed receipt-through-repetition (Greer et al 2009), indicating that she now understands the term. The ongoing talk quickly returns to the primary medium (English) and A continues with her complaint sequence.

V. Conclusion

Although space limitations prevent me from going into greater detail with other excerpts from my corpus, even this one brief instance suggests that teachers should consider the advantages of allowing limited use of L1 in classroom discussion. One practical implication of this for classroom teachers is that language alternation can be an additional resource for English learners, so long as the model is ultimately one in which the base language is English and any use of L1 is quickly repaired by returning the medium of communication to that language.

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Tim Greer
School of Languages and Communication
Kobe University, Japan
Phone:
Email: tim@kobe-u.ac.jp

Biodata
Dr Tim Greer is an associate professor in the School of Languages and Communication at Kobe University, Japan. His research interests focus on naturally occurring interaction in Japanese and English. His doctoral thesis is on the accomplishment of identity in bilingual interaction and his recent work looks at the way Japanese students make use of various interactional practices in English. His research combines ethnography and qualitative approaches with micro-discourse analytic approaches such as conversation analysis and membership categorization analysis.

Korean-Chinese Students' Advantages in Learning English

Li Chenghao (No.1 middle school in Fushun city, Liaoning Province, China)

I. Introduction

Psychologists claim that language is a social phenomenon, a world-wide communicative tool with sound and meaning….provides the most important and effective communicative tool for men (PengDanling, 2001).

As one of the most important languages in the world, English has become an indispensable element in fields such as human life, economy, culture, science and technology, politics and military. Speaking English becomes more apparently important under the current circumstance of social informationalization and the economic globalization.

To know the value of learning English from the purpose of English education, it can be seen that the importance of learning English for Korean-Chinese students is the need of all-round education, which shows the requirements of the social development in the 21st century for talents' quality. The advantages of Korean-Chinese students' learning English can be listed in the following perspectives:

II. The advantages of cognitive condition and language environment

In the process of reflecting objective world by understanding, affection and will, various psychological characteristics will be formed which can make psychological differences among men. (PengDanling 2001)

Scientific research indicates that different functions are "given" to both sides of the human brain along with their mature gradually, which is called hemisphere lateralization. Human intelligence, logic analysis, language functions of lateralization is gradually lateralized to the left hemisphere, while the social function of emotion is gradually lateralized to the right hemisphere. Korean-Chinese students' brain areas in charge of language are more flexible because they accept a bilingual education of Korean and Chinese at a very young age, on basis of which, more favorable physiological condition is created for Korean-Chinese students in learning English obviously.

"The achievements Korean-Chinese minority made in population modernization have not only been the top place among 56 minority nationalities in China, but also reached the level of the world developed countries in some important index. It shows that Korean-Chinese minority has embarked on the developmental road of population – education-economy-society. The principal experience of Korean-Chinese minority is that education promotes the development of a nation, and is of the great priority". (Zhang Tianlu, Huang Rongqing , 2001) Besides the inventive creation within the spirit, Korean-Chinese minority is also good at accepting all new advanced things and has powerful language talent and ability to accept advanced foreign cultures. As a result, Korean-Chinese students possess really unique advantages in learning English. Korean-Chinese students begin to learn Korean and Chinese since they are little, which means an early education in bilingualism. Therefore, in their process of English learning, there appears a double transfer (PengDanling, 2001) both from Chinese language and Korean language. Their brain areas in charge of language learning are more flexible than those of monolinguals, and at the same time, the long-term bilingual training develops their strong-will power. These factors create favorable conditions for English study. The Korean-Chinese students who can speak both Korean and Chinese language can make full use of the two language-systems they have already mastered to study Korean, Chinese and English comparatively (Zhang Tianlu, Huang Rongqing , 2000) so that the Korean-Chinese students' language systematic function can be promoted more effectively, as well as language accuracy and practicability. From such aspects as listening comprehension, pronunciation, grammar and writing, in addition to their superior conditions, these have all created a favorable contrast for learning English.

Students' English is acquired on the basis of class teaching as well as the practice in certain language environment. As is known to all, there are a certain number of loan words in either Chinese language or Korean language. In Korean language, there are a particular larger proportion of loan

words that originate from English words. This offers convenient conditions for Korean-Chinese students to learn English.

III. Advantage of social environment

Scientists' researches have made it clear that motivation in language learning plays a very important role. Individuals need the enthusiasm and interest in learning a language. Different people have different motivations: the hope to make progress, the dream to study abroad, the curiosity about different cultures and the pure intellectual fun and so on. These are just some simple possible motives among the learners. However, the willing to learn is actually the most important one among all of these motives. At present, it is difficult for a man without certain cultural knowledge to get development. Those who don't know English will be eliminated in the big world economy trend for English has already become a main international communicative tool in the world. More realistic meaning premises on the advantages Korean-Chinese students can benefit from in learning English.

Korean-Chinese schools have roughly experienced three stages in making foreign language as a curriculum: from the establishment of PRC in 1949 to the culture revolution in 1966, Russian was one of the subjects, (note: from 1966 to 1976 there wasn't any foreign language teaching); from the end of cultural revolution in 1976 to the early 1990s Japanese was offered as a foreign language; since the early 1990s English has been offered as a foreign offered course. It can be said that the foreign language teaching in Korean-Chinese schools had gone through a detour. Because of national political and economic development situation in the past, there was once no English language teaching. After all, Russian or Japanese was refrained to the adaption of the world economy development. English is one of the international languages. Only by the mastery of English, can one adapt to the rapid development of the real economic environment in the era of economic and knowledge globalization. It's also one of important qualities for talents of the future society, which has already been acknowledged by many countries of the world.

In the 21st century, the rise of knowledge-based economy, the widespread use of information technology, the acceleration of global integration process, have all made exchanges increase in such fields as national politics, economy and culture. Meanwhile, the international competition is becoming increasingly fierce. This competition is eventually a national quality competition. Practice shows that during the informative age of knowledge explosion, the faster to obtain information, knowledge, and to turn the knowledge into productive forces, the better place can he stay in the international competitions. Through the 30 years of China's reform and opening-up, China has undergone earth-shaking changes. Economy, culture, education has been developing rapidly, and people's living standards have been improved. However, there's still a big difference compared with the developed countries. Under such circumstance, it's necessary for Korean-Chinese students to learn English.

At present, the phenomenon of Chinese domestic employment is in a very seriously difficult state. To take this year as an example, there will be 6, 1 million students graduating from college, plus 2.6 million who have been unemployed in the previous years. In this case, it's palpable how difficult it will be for a man without certain technological skills to be employed. But if the Korean-Chinese college graduates master English besides their professional knowledge, it will be relatively easier for them to get employed because they can not only work in Korean enterprise, but also find jobs in other departments such as government agencies, domestic enterprises, and the foreign investment enterprise including Japanese companies. More choices in employment for those Korean-Chinese students who learn English shows great superiority, while Korean-Chinese students learning other foreign languages don't have the advantage.

There are about 200 million Korean-Chinese people in China at present, and Korean-Chinese nationality has the highest level of national education among all 56 minority nationalities of China. They have been known as smart, hard-working people. They also have the advantage in languages, in addition to Chinese and Korean language; they master at least one foreign language so that they have obvious advantages in social competition. Especially since China's reform and opening policy, the United States, Britain, Japan and many other countries have come to our country to invest. Many Korean enterprises need a large quantity of talents, which brings a lot more job opportunities to Korean-Chinese, especially for unprecedented Korean-Chinese graduates. They have not only

mastered Korean, Chinese and English languages, but also resonate in culture, tradition, emotions with the Korean companies. There is no doubt that they will be able to be liked by the Korean enterprises. Therefore, there're great advantages for Korean-Chinese university graduates entering in Korean enterprise in China.

After more than ten years of the influence of social environment, more and more Korean-Chinese have been aware of the necessity of learning English, its superiority and importance. This can be seen from the changes of the English learning students' number. In 1993, before the beginning of school English course, 100% students studied Japanese. When the English class was first started, only 27 students learned English at school, which took up only 2.5% of the total. Now there are over 95% students learning English. And quite a few have been admitted to famous Chinese universities like Peking University, Tsinghua University.

To sum up, Korean-Chinese students possess the physical, linguistic and social advantages in learning English. This has laid a strong foundation for cultivating talents of higher quality in the current rapid development of social normalization and the economic globalization situation.

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Distributional Input properties and second language development

Sang-Ki Lee (Seoul National University)

Motivated by input-based and usage-oriented accounts of language learning (e.g., Ellis, 2008; Robinson & Ellis, 2008), this study examined relative effects of (1) two types of input distribution, balanced distribution versus skewed distribution, and (2) two types of input salience, enhancement versus flood (Lee, 2007; Lee & Huang, 2008), on the processing of English unaccusative constructions by 154 Korean high school students.

The 154 participants were randomly assigned to one of four experimental groups and two control groups. Four experimental groups experienced a second language (L2) reading text under the following four different reading conditions: [IE (input enhancement) + SD (skewed distribution)], [IE + BD (balanced distribution)], [IF (input flood) + SD], and [IF + BD]. Six unaccusative verbs were chosen from an analysis of their corpus-based frequencies (*appear*, *emerge*, *happen*, *last*, *result*, and *survive*) and a total of 12 instances of them were included in the reading text. The verb instances embedded in the text were expected to constitute positive evidence demonstrating the target-like use of English unaccusatives. That is to say, the learning task of the participants was to learn about unaccusativity in English via the exposure to the manipulated input materials.

Each of the six unaccusative verbs was presented twice in the balanced input distribution conditions. By contrast, in the skewed distribution conditions, *happen* selected as a prototypical member of the entire unaccusative verb group, appeared seven times within the identical text, while the rest five verbs were presented just once. The enhancement reading conditions were operationalized by presenting the 12 instances of the unaccusative verbs in a larger font size and in a different font type. Such enhancement cues as underlining and bold facing were concurrently utilized. On the other hand, the same verb instances were presented in a plain text format in the flood reading conditions. Finally, the text for the control groups contained the same content but did not include any unaccusatives.

The participants were pre- and post-tested on their knowledge about the targetlike construction with unaccusative verbs, namely the NP-V structures without overpassivization (e.g., *Garbage appeared immediately from the river*) through several versions of a scaled grammaticality judgment task (GJT). A version of judgment task was also administered three weeks later after the treatment sessions as a delayed posttest. The following Table 1 and Table 2 respectively show descriptive statistics of the participants' judgment scores on the immediate posttest and on the delayed posttest.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics of GJT Scores (Immediate Posttest)*

Group	*n*	*Mean*	*SD*	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max	Effect Size (*d*)
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
[IE + SD]	24	4.93	0.85	4.58	5.29	3.17	5.96	0.57
[IE + BD]	27	4.97	0.82	4.65	5.29	2.96	6.00	0.63
[IF + SD]	29	4.76	0.84	4.44	5.08	3.04	6.00	0.37
[IF + BD]	24	4.78	0.78	4.45	5.12	3.04	6.00	0.41
Control	50	4.45	0.83	4.22	4.69	2.92	6.00	
TOTAL	154	4.73	0.84	4.59	4.86	2.92	6.00	

Note. Effect sizes were calculated with the control group (n = 50) as the contrast.

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics of GJT Scores (Delayed Posttest)*

Group	*n*	*Mean*	*SD*	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max	Effect Size (*d*)
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
[IE + SD]	24	4.92	1.00	4.50	5.34	2.88	6.00	0.54
[IE + BD]	27	4.82	0.83	4.50	5.15	3.04	6.00	0.45
[IF + SD]	29	4.78	0.98	4.41	5.16	2.83	6.00	0.38
[IF + BD]	24	4.65	0.84	4.29	5.01	2.50	5.79	0.25
Control	50	4.44	0.84	4.20	4.68	2.46	6.00	

TOTAL	154	4.68	0.90	4.54	4.82	2.46	6.00

Note. Effect sizes were calculated with the control group (n = 50) as the contrast.

Inferential statistical results generally show that L2 learners in this study have immediately benefited from being exposed to the materials containing the salient and frequent input instances. More specifically, types of input salience had a statistically significant effect on the immediate changes in the students' ability to judge the (un)grammaticality of unaccusativity in L2 English, $F(2, 149) = 4.72$, $p = 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.06$. Likewise, input frequency distribution had a statistically significant effect on the immediate changes in the students' ability to judge the (un)grammaticality of unaccusativity in L2 English, $F(2, 149) = 4.15$, $p = 0.018$, $R^2 = 0.05$. However, skewed and balanced distribution conditions did not bring about a significant difference in learning (Mean difference = 0.04, $p = 0.99$, 95% CI for mean difference = -0.35 ~ 0.43). The relative benefits of enhancement and flood were not statistically different, either (Mean difference = 0.18, $p = 0.60$, 95% CI for mean difference = -0.21 ~ 0.57). It was also found out that the effects of types of input salience and types of frequency distribution on the processing of form for learning did not last over three weeks, at least not to statistically significant degrees (input salience: $F(2, 149) = 2.99$, $p = 0.053$, $R^2 = 0.04$; input frequency distribution: $F(2, 149) = 2.84$, $p = 0.062$, $R^2 = 0.04$).

Although this study could not find any statistically significantly different benefits of the two types of salience and of the two types of input frequency distribution, it would be more important to note that the sizes of the effect of each of the four treatment conditions were in fact detectable, ranging from $d = 0.37$ to 0.63 in the immediate posttest and from $d = 0.25$ to 0.54 in the delayed posttest. It can be concluded that the provision of many input instances, irrespective of their presentation formats and distributional properties, would lead to some beneficial effects on L2 learners' processing of form for learning. This conclusion then confirms the theoretical expectation of the input-based and usage-based accounts of language learning in terms of the important roles of input frequency in L2 learning.

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Sang-Ki Lee
Seoul National University
Phone: 010-3400-0906
Email: sangkissi@gmail.com

Biodata

Sang-Ki Lee obtained his Ph.D. from the University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa and is currently teaching at Seoul National University in Korea. His research and teaching interests include acquisition, individual learner differences, grammar and reading pedagogy, research methodologies, and meta-analysis.

Sociocultural Approach to Nonnative Speaker Interactions: Peer Scaffolding Instances as Learning Tools or Missed Opportunities?

Hye-Kyung Ryoo (Daegu University)

I. Introduction

While there has been ample empirical support for the positive effect of scaffolding on second language development, the exact nature of the interactional mechanisms through which the learners seek and provide help has not been closely investigated. The present study draws on the theoretical premises of sociocultural approach to investigate small group interactions among Korean EFL learners. It examines how the Korean college level EFL learners, with their limited linguistic resources, scaffolded each other in a variety of ways. Varying types of participant structures of scaffolding instances found in the data are discussed in terms of how they are stimulated and administered as a language learning strategy. The analysis of data also suggests an expanded perspective of scaffolding where the boundary between the 'expert' and 'novice' is blurred.

II. The Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding

More recent studies on second language interactions have emphasized the importance of collaborative and co-constructive nature of learner interactions within the framework of Vygotskian sociocultural approach to language and learning (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986; Ohta, 2000; Swain, 2001; van Lier, 2004). Some particularly important notions conceptualized in sociocultural theory of learning are the notions of 'Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)' and scaffolding. Vygotsky (1978) defined ZPD as “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (p. 86). The ‘adult guidance’ and ‘collaboration with more capable peers’ are realized through the actions of scaffolding. Scaffolding is defined as the “contingent, collaborative and interactive” assistance provided by an expert to a novice in interactions. (Wood, 1988, cited in van Lier 2004, p. 147).

van Lier (2004) proposes an expanded concept of ZPD to cover a variety of multidimensional contexts where ZPD can emerge. Adding to the scaffolding actions between experts and novices and collaborative scaffolding between peers with equal knowledge, van Lier (2004) proposes two other contexts for ZPD; i) interaction with less capable peers and ii) use of one’s inner resources (knowledge, experience, memory, strength) (p. 158). The data analysis in this paper focuses on describing the processes on how the learners built their second language knowledge by providing assistance to and getting help from other learners, as well as internalizing the target language by relying on available resources in a self-directed way (Walqui, 2006).

III. The study

The data of the present study is based on the video and audio taped interactions in actual group discussion sessions in a college English conversation club. The regular club meetings were held with 4 to 5 group members discussing a designated topic for each day. A single recording session lasted about an hour and in total 13 sessions were recorded throughout the semester.

IV. Discussion

1. Supportive scaffolding assistance from more capable peers

Scaffolding as a supportive move is one of the most commonly studied scaffolding patterns where a novice learner gets help from a person with more advanced knowledge. The effects of scaffolding actions are evident in the facilitated performance of the person who is helped. Unlike the cases of learners’ interactions with native speaker interlocutors, in interactions among nonnative speaker

learners, the quality of provided help and the effects of the scaffolding assistance may not readily be available. The analysis of supportive scaffolding instances found in the data clearly showed the limited nature of the scaffolding processes where the novice learner could not come up with the facilitated performance based on the help provided.

Extract 1: 20081106 (04:54)

22 L1: maybe next week; (-) uh; (-) I have to re- ready to s- study; uh °yeah°; and::
23 L3: (?) ready for the exam?
24 L1: ready for the yes; (.) ready for the exam and:: uh:: today; (0.2) I uh I um; (0.3) ba-
25 I- I feel bad because of my cold. (0.2) I ha- ca-=
26 L2: °catch a [cold°.
27 L1: [caught-
28 L3: (be?) away from me. (0.2) I don't want to come down with flu. no no no please.

In Extract 1, L1 tried to tell the others that she should get ready to study for the exam in line 22, but had trouble as indicated in a number of stuttering and pauses in between the words. L3 who, in this case, was the more knowledgeable person who knew the correct expression 'ready for the exam' helped L1, but in a rather limited way with a fragment of the expression instead of a full usage of it. L1's uptake, in turn, was just repeating what L3 had informed her and L1 could not develop the expression in a correct and meaningful way.

2. Collective scaffolding with equal peers

The effects of scaffolding in the present study seemed to be more positively realized in collaborative work among the learners. Here, there was not the clear expert-novice relation in that none of the learners involved had the right knowledge about the specific language items. Rather, they worked through the difficulty together based on their existing knowledge and tools available and co-constructed the target language structures and meanings.

Extract 2: 20081125 (15:46)

74 L3: I: I write,(.) writed a resume, (.) about; (0.3) u::h par- t- time job, (0.2) so;=
75 L2: you can say apply.
76 L3: uh apply; (-) I- I apply for; (-) part time job,
77 (0.5)
78 L1: is- is the resume;
79 L2: yes.
80 L1: needed to;(.) apply for; (.) a part time job,
81 L2: yeah [recently.
82 L3: [yeah.
83 L2: it's not to easy find part time [jobs.

In Extract 2, L3 in line 74 was not able to produce a correct target language structure and indicated her difficulty in verbalizing what she wanted to say. L2 in line 75 caught the meaning L3 wanted to deliver and provided help to L3. However, L2's assistance in line 75 ('apply') was not an entirely complete one since the correct phrase would be 'apply for'. L3, in turn, turned the incomplete assistance from L2 into the complete one and used it in delivering her meaning in line 76. Then, L2 who previously provided the incomplete assistance now used the form correctly in line 80, which seemed to be the result of L3's correct usage of the term in line 76. The significance of this extract is that neither L2 nor L3 are experts in this case. Both L2 and L3 indicated their difficulty in formulating the correct language form 'to apply for a job', however, they were able to use the correct form in the end with the help of each other.

3. Learning through assisting less capable peers

van Lier (2004) proposed a proximal context for ZPD where some form of assistance is provided by the action of helping other learners in itself. One of the examples was the case where the expert learner, in helping the other learner with his knowledge, reassured his existing language knowledge by producing it verbally and made sure it was correct.

Extract 3: 20081126 (35:21)
39 L1: yeah at that time I went to so many countries;(.) and then;(0.2) u::h;(0.1) I- I like; 40 (-) to study En- English or the other;(.) languages;(.) so nowa days globals; (-) global; 41 you- ((looks at L2 and then L3 for help)) global;
42 L3: globalization.
43 L1: yeah [globalization.
44 L3: [°globalization; ((murmuring himself)) [globalization.°
45 L1: [so many countries; (0.2) u::::h uses English;
46 L2: yeah.
47 L1: use English; (0.2) if I have time and; (-) uh if- if I'm a; (0.1) I'm a person;(0.1) who 48 speak English at that time I didn't, (-) I go everywhere.

In line 40, L1 was struggling with the word 'globalization' in that he knew the first part of the word 'global', but could not come up with the correct noun form of the word. Upon seeing L1's struggle and plea for help in line 41, L3 successfully provided the correct form of the word 'globalization' in line 42. Then, L1 showed a positive uptake of the form by repeating the correct word form assisted by L3 in the previous turn. One interesting fact about this instance was that L3 repeated the word, 'globalization' twice even after the scaffolding action had already taken place. The repetition of the word 'globalization' was not targeting anyone in the interaction as he was murmuring the word himself without gazing at anyone. L3's repetition of the word here can be seen as an indication of the internalization process of the language item to L3's second language repertoire. Although L3 knew the correct target language form 'globalization' and thus, successfully provided help to L1, he processed the work once again to make sure the word was the right one and the pronunciation of it by repeating the word out loud.

van Lier (2004) claims that a learner can utilize his/her already existing experience and knowledge and also try new things in a self-directed way. This is different from the traditional conceptualization of scaffolding in that the scaffolding entities are not more knowledgeable people helping novices, but that the resources available to learners act as helping devices.

Extract 4: 20081125 (26:12)
17 L1: [but it wasn't real first love; (.) because; (-) u:::::h it was only <u>oneside</u> love.=
18 L2: oh.
19 L1: ((looking closely at L2)) is it, (.) good expression?=
20 L2: yeah- I guess- maybe; (.) maybe that's good (.) express- good;=
---
26 ((L2 takes out his cell phone from his pocket and checks out the word while L1
27 is talking))
---
31 L2: ((looking at his cell phone and pointing at it) [°sided°;
32 ((L1 leans towards L2 to look at the cell phone L2 is pointing at))
33 L2: one <u>sided</u> love.
34 L1: one <u>sided</u> love. ((nods his head)) (0.5) who has the same majority, (-) as me.

In Extract 4 L1 was talking about his first love which was a one sided love when he was young. L1 who was not sure about the language item ('one side love') he used and asked for help to L2. L2, realizing that none of the other participants had the correct linguistic knowledge, sought for assistance from his electronic dictionary as shown in his nonverbal actions in line 26 and 27 and kept searching for the correct word while L1 continued talking until line 31, where he finally found the correct form of 'one side love' and provided assistance to the other learners with what he had found. The significance of L2's active searching for the right target language item was based on his realization

that the help was not available from the other two learners, which led him to seek for assistance by himself. Here, L2, realizing the gap and limitation in his second language knowledge sought actively to find it by using an available tool, which was a dictionary.

V. Conclusion

From the findings of the present study, it has been revealed that scaffolding actions of learners are diverse. Some made them focus their attention on the language gaps and generated new linguistic knowledge. But others were very limited both in the nature of provided help and in the uptakes the learners who received help displayed. Investigating dynamic and varying patterns of scaffolding and ZPD in second language interactions in which the learners jointly structured communication can offer detailed descriptive accounts as well as important insights of how exactly they co-constructed their language experiences.

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Hye-Kyung Ryoo
Department of English Language and Literature
Daegu University
Phone: 053-850-6024
Email: hryoo2002@daegu.ac.kr

Biodata

Hye-Kyung Ryoo is currently an assistant professor at Daegu University. She received her Ph.D. in applied linguistics from the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Her research interests are in nonnative speaker interactions, intercultural communication, and classroom discourse analysis.

A Discourse Analysis of Language scaffolding in Cross-age Tutoring

Ji Young Kim (University of Florida)

I. Introduction

The growing numbers of students who speak English as a second language are faced with the challenge of academic achievements on standardized assessments in school due to the limited language proficiency and the lack of content knowledge which may cause the tardiness of independent reading and being left behind for a quite long period.

The research questions posed in this study is how the cross-age tutoring experiences motivate English language learners to read actively and positively by using language scaffolding. The two discourses in the cross-age reading programs between high school tutors and first grade or kindergarten tutees in ESOL (English to Speakers of Other Languages) and mainstream classroom are explored to see how they interact with each other in reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. The concept of language scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) are considered to explore the benefits of cross-age tutoring, using the tool of Thematic Analysis in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL).

II. Theoretical background

1. Language Scaffolding and ZPD in Cross-age Tutoring

The metaphor of scaffolding tells us meaningful idea that children are actively engaged in learning by social interactions with other people who are more knowledgeable and competent in collaborative activities. Vygotsky's concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is associated with the meaning of scaffolding in terms of two different levels of learning by collaborative learning instruction: the actual development of learning by learner themselves and the potential development under guidance or collaboration with more capable peers (Ohta,1995; Foster & Ohta, 2005). This study mainly focuses on the language scaffolding in the discourses of cross-age tutoring in terms of how the tutors support and scaffold the tutees to acquire new vocabulary and to comprehend reading passages by producing appropriate interlocution. Additionally this study explores how and why the tutees of English language learner respond to the scaffoldings, using their native language and English dynamically.

This research is able to give a meaningful insight into cross-age tutoring in English language learning by comparing two different language groups of cross-age pairs – one is Korean-Korean pair and the other is native-native speakers of English from the interactional perspective rather than sociocultural perspectives in the previous studies which mainly focus on gaining positive attitudes and motivation toward reading as well as the development of social and interpersonal skills from the cross-age tutoring experiences.

3. Thematic Analysis in Functional Linguistic Approach

In general, theme is the starting point of a clause which provides familiar information from the previous text or presumed understood in functional grammar. The remained part of a clause is a rheme which modifies and develops themes, providing unfamiliar or new information (Halliday & Matthiessens, 2004). There are three main types of themes in functional grammar– Topical (experiential), and textual theme to organize a text and communicate effectively (Halliday & Matthiessens, 2004). In the analysis, the tutors' constructions of themes are mainly examined in a clause by means of topical, interpersonal, and textual themes and the purpose of L1 uses are also analyzed when and why the learners use their native language.

III. Methodology

1. Sample of data

The main subjects are high school student tutors and elementary and kindergartener tutees in reading intervention classes. The first pair has the same language background of Korean and in the second group of tutoring, both the tutor and the tutee are native English speakers, but the tutee is in emergent reading stage.

2. Data Analysis

The given sample data are analyzed by Thematic analysis in Systemic Functional Linguistics approach. In the analysis, the variations of linguistic choices and patterns in a clause level are shown and each type of themes is categorized into the conceptual terms of language scaffolding from coding such as modeling, engaging, encouraging, checking, affirming, paraphrasing, repeating, etc. Separately, the purpose of L1 use is also analyzed in terms of when and why L1 is used in the context and interpreted with a view of meta-cognition across languages in vocabulary acquisition.

VI. Findings

The findings from this study represent the similarities and differences in the thematic structures between the two pairs. The similar features of spoken instruction genre emerge from the overall interpretation and the differences are shown in the frequency and linguistic variation of each type of themes across the two pairs. The overall finding shows that the topical themes are used to draw the instructional dialogic interactions between the tutors and tutees with variations – interrogatives, demonstratives, pronouns, and descriptive themes in clauses. However, the two language groups show different linguistic choices in the clause structures and grammatical properties of topical themes. Interpersonal themes represent speakers' angle and encouragement for the listeners to check and engage their prior knowledge with the current learning by employing the modals and the different types of mood with finite verb operators such as 'do, does, did' and 'let's.' Textural themes function in the discourses as a logical connector for both tutors and tutees, mainly using 'so' and 'and' as a signal of flow of thinking. In the process of clarifying, comprehending, and confirming meanings in the discourses, the negotiation and modification are developed by giving and taking in the various types of linguistic scaffolding in their native language to build common knowledge context.

V. Conclusion

This study explores how language scaffolding functions in reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition in a cross-age tutoring program. From the thematic analysis of Systemic Functional Linguistics, we are acknowledged some similarities and differences between two different language groups. Although the several previous studies have focused more on sociocultural aspects of cross-age tutoring considerably, in this study, main focus is on the interactional approach to the language uses and comparisons between two different language groups. This study shows the richness of interaction by providing language scaffolding in cross-age tutoring programs as well as variations of linguistic choices between two different language groups.

In conclusion, the children are able to develop their learning beyond their original ability through the interactions of cross-age tutoring by language scaffoldings. As for English language learners, L1 use functions to give clear understanding and build common knowledge context by the endeavor of questioning, confirming, clarifying, modeling, and negotiating effectively. This may imply that literacy instructions should be intensively focused on L2 development, while also providing students access to the acquisition of literacy skills in their native language as an essential resource in the development of biliteracy.

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Ji Young Kim
ESOL/Bilingual Education
School of Teaching and Learning
College of Education
University of Florida
Phone: 1-850-320-5357
Email: ibppy014@ufl.edu

Biodata

Ji Young Kim is a fourth year doctoral student in ESOL/Bilingual Education program in College of Education at University of Florida. Her research interests are in discourse analysis of classroom interactions for English language learners, development of teacher preparation program, and peer/cross-age tutoring with linguistically and culturally diverse students.

Designing History Lessons for ESL Learners

Eun Young Park (Indiana University)
Young-Mee Suh (Indiana University)
Yoo-Sun Jung (Indiana University)

I. Introduction

We live in a constantly changing world, in which international communications have been done more and more frequently and informational technologies have been developed more and more rapidly. In order to help students to be good language learners, it is necessary to develop Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as well as Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS), because acquiring BICS does not guarantee acquiring CALP (Cummins, 1989). How can we develop ESL materials for CALP? This inquiry helps us raise awareness of the Content-Based Instruction and develop practical materials for students. Therefore, we decided to develop social studies materials for ESL students in order for ESL students to enhance their CALP.

This project will be beneficial to teachers in terms of enhancing their awareness of how CALP needs multiple layers of scaffolding for it to be effective, and to English language learners in terms of enhancing CALP. The reason that the social studies was chosen is that social studies is one of the most difficult subjects for the ESL students because of both their limited English proficiency and their limited knowledge about social studies. Rymes and Pash (2001) point out the importance of establishing second language learners' social identity in second language learning.

II. Literature Review

1. Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

Within CBI, the foreign language is not the subject of instruction; rather it is the vehicle for content instruction (Met, 1993). Through CBI, language learners develop linguistic skills in the target language which can be a bridge to access content knowledge of a specific subject matter in a natural circumstance. A major theoretical foundation that strongly supports CBI comes from Cummins's (1989) notion of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and B**asic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS).** Cummins (1989) made a distinction between BICS **(basic interpersonal communicative skills) and CALP (cognitive academic language proficiency). A**lthough ESL learners can develop functional or peer-appropriate conversational skills in about two years of initial exposure, developing academic proficiency in English takes at least five years in order to catch up to native speaking peers in academic aspects of the second language. He further noted that the opportunity for language minority students to develop academic language ability should not be delayed until they are proficient in English. Snow (2001) and Nunan (1988) suggest that the subject, social studies, should be taught in the CBI model in a broad perspective.

2. Key approaches in developing materials

Starting from CBI, more specified teaching strategies for ESL students are also considered, and we chose problem-based instruction (Schleppegrell & Bowman 1995; Abdullah 1998; Larsson 2001) or task-based instruction (Tessema 2005) as concrete teaching methods. Especially, the problem-posing approach is the base of our needs analysis of learners and designing materials for them. We identify learners' problem, present the problem by asking questions, facilitate discussion in group to solve the problem among learners, and by doing this, learners develop language skills. Also, all approaches we adopt in designing and developing materials are based on cooperative learning (Abdullah & Jacobs 2004; Oxford 1997) and student-centeredness (Davis 1997; Nyikos 1991; Chen 2007).

III. Methodology: Interview and Needs Analysis

Our social studies materials development for ESL students started from meeting one student in the Midwest region of the U. S. She came from Korea and had stayed in the U. S. for nine months at that

time. She was a fourth grade at an elementary school, and attended pulling-out English as a Nonnative Language class instead of mainstream literacy class. Even though she had been studying English since kindergarten in Korea, she said that she had difficulty catching up with classes in her new school in America, especially in her social studies class. Some of the difficult challenges of her in studying social studies were challenging vocabulary, short memory retention due to unfamiliar content, and little background knowledge on American culture, history, and geography. She hoped the teacher to explain things easier with comprehensible words, and she needed to be improved in listening to understand the content better. According to her mother, her favorite hobby was reading and her reading comprehension in her L1(Korean) was much higher than other fourth graders in her country. She enjoyed reading classics and history of her culture in her native language. However, her level of reading in English did not reach to her grade reading level, and she was reading English storybooks for third graders.

Based on the interview and the student's needs, we decided to help her by making useful supplementary materials by creating comprehensible input activities and modifying difficult words into easier words. We had experience to modify Math textbook for ESL students, so we knew the difficulties ESL students might have in understanding content area. We believed, if appropriate and comprehensible inputs were added, our interviewee's understanding of the content would be speeded up. The target material was 5th grade social studies textbook even though our interviewee was in the 4th grade since it was almost the end of the fourth grade.

To customize our work, we asked more specific questions to our interviewee utilizing the learning strategies questionnaire to find out her learning styles. The results of the interview showed that she preferred to study by herself in a quiet room. She said that when she had time, she loved reading novels in Korean and English. When she had challenging parts to understand, she commonly used such strategy as guessing the meaning of the words through context. Just as much as she liked reading, she loved doing arts and crafts. She also liked watching American cartoons on TV. Based on her favorites to do, she seemed to be a visual and artistic learner. Interestingly, we noticed that she had strong emotional and cultural tight with her own culture. She wanted to go back to Korea when her mother finished her study even though she enjoyed her school life and her American friends in the U.S.

Besides figuring out our interviewee's learning styles and strategies, we asked her what kinds of activities she did in her classroom to get some ideas of developing activities. She usually did crossword puzzle in a newspaper, solved pop quiz, and sometimes presented a project related to the subject she learned.

Based on the interview and need analysis, we discussed on the things to consider when developing materials for our interviewee. First, as she was good at reading, we needed to further facilitate her to have more advanced reading ability in English. Second, as she wanted to improve her listening ability, we needed to provide various effective listening activities. Third, we needed to make the unfamiliar vocabulary into easier words for her to understand the content easier. Fourth, to help her memory retain longer, we needed to provide some activities or introduce some strategies that would help her content knowledge memory. Fifth, to familiarize the unfamiliar content, it was important to help her build up some background knowledge. One way to do this was to create activities to compare the target culture to the native culture. Introducing vocabulary for content comprehension in pre-reading stage was also a good way for her to build up necessary knowledge. Finally, it was necessary to use various visual tools including pictures, graphs, diagrams, flow charts, videos, and drawing as much as possible since our interviewee was a visual learner.

IV. Lesson Planning

Many ESL students have difficulties in catching up with content area subjects such as social studies. American history or geography is quite unfamiliar to ESL students. Unfamiliar vocabulary makes the content more difficult to understand and retain the information. Teachers should give additional attention to ESL students and be aware of their unique personal background, thus provide appropriate instruction and material resources. Based on this belief and the needs analysis, we developed supplementary materials for a 5th grade social studies class.

We chose to develop lesson plans on the topics of Slavery and the Civil War since the topics are challenging for our interviewee. Particularly, the concept and the construct of slavery, in terms of race, did not exist in the interviewee's history. The topics, however, are related to the history of the interviewee's country in terms of slavery based on social class. Our goal of material development was not only help our interviewee and ESL students understand the content easily but also be aware of their own history and compare it to the history of the U.S. The key approaches we applied for our lessons were content-based teaching, task-based instruction, problem-solving learning, and cooperative learning. In addition, we tried to adopt appropriate learning strategies for our interviewee that we found out through needs analysis.

Most of the content in social studies is presented by reading texts and our interviewee's main concern was to advance her reading ability. As a result, the activities were developed to focus on a reading skill and the other language skills were also integrated as much as possible in every aspect. Every lesson was designed with three stages: Pre-reading, While-reading, and Post-reading. Pre-reading activities are to build and activate students' background knowledge and to motivate students to read. While-reading activities are mainly to check students' comprehension as they read. Finally, Post-reading activities are to check comprehension and to extend the reading to other language skills. For each stage, we employed various activities taking into account the major approaches mentioned above and the learner's learning strategies (see Appendix A- a sample lesson plan).

V. Discussion

While we were involved in this study, we realized that additional careful attention should be paid to the specific needs of ESL students in content area subjects. We believe both content and language teachers should be aware of the unique personal background of ESL students in providing appropriate instruction and material resources. It is important to identify students' learning styles and strategies through needs analysis and provide them with a mixture of materials that can meet their various learning styles.

The major implication of our material development is not only to help ESL or EFL learners gain access to unfamiliar content easily, but also think critically and make meaningful connection between themselves and the content when learning about the world. In other words, while American social studies might be unfamiliar to ESL students, critical activities can provide them with a good opportunity to discuss comparable historical events in their own countries and make meaningful connection in order to enhance ESL students' critical reading ability.

In addition, it is important to embrace specified teaching approaches in designing materials for ESL or EFL students in the CBI model. By considering adopting task-based instruction, problem-solving learning, and cooperative learning, and strategies-based instruction, we could come up with a variety of activities that would not only help students develop their language skills but also make them feel easier to access content knowledge more effectively.

The limitation of this study is that we have not had an opportunity to use actual lesson plans we developed in a real ESL classroom. For a follow-up study, it is necessary to see whether or not the lessons and resources we developed are actually useful in ESL classrooms.

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Biodata

The presenters are all Ph. D. candidates in the Department of Literacy, Culture and Language Education at Indiana University. Eun Young Park' research interests include immersion teacher education, immersion pedagogy, and content-based foreign language instruction. Young-Mee Suh's research interests are EFL learners' reading strategy use in reading English written text, effective grammar instruction in EFL context, and material development for EFL class. Yoo-Sun Jung's research interests are ESL/EFL materials development and teacher education.

Contact information

Eun Young Park: park9@indiana.edu, Young-Mee Suh: suh2@indiana.edu, Yoo-Sun Jung: yoojung@indiana.edu

[Appendix A: Sample Lesson Plan- Post-reading]

Time needed: 45 minutes

<Objectives>

Content:

Students will discuss their own historical event based on their reading.

Students will raise cultural awareness between target culture and their own culture.

Language:

Students will read a paragraph and formulate questions.

Students will participate in group discussions.

Strategies:

Students will research information on the comparable historical event in their history.

<Materials> Social Studies textbook for fifth grade, a sample question sheet, a guide sheet for discussion, an evaluation checklist

<Activities>

▶ **Making comprehension check-up questions in group** (10 minutes)

1) Students are divided into 4 groups and each group read a different paragraph.

2) The teacher shows how to make a question by giving them a sample question
3) Each group make three questions for the paragraph they read.

▶ **Trivia game** (10 minutes)

1) Starting from the group for the first paragraph, each member from each group comes to the front and asks the question to the class.
2) The teacher marks the points each group earn on the board.
3) The group which earns the most points wins the game.

▶ **Discussion on a comparable historical event in the students' own country** (25 minutes)

1) Students will gather according to their nationality. (If there are few students from the same nationality, the teacher can group the students based on the continent they come from.)
2) The teacher shows and explains the guide sheet for the students to follow when they discuss. The teacher puts emphasis on that students will make a five-minute script for performance in the next class.
3) Students discuss on a comparable historical event including slavery, discrimination, or prejudice in their own history in each group.
4) The homework for the day is to find out more specific information on their discussion. Students should use the guide sheet to find the necessary information. Also, students should think about how to write a script and act it out with three members in a group.

▶ **Evaluation checklist:** Teachers can use the checklist to evaluate students' ability to use the textbook in making questions and participation during the discussion of the day.

Developing an Immersion Dictionary for CALP

Jeong-ryeol Kim (KNUE)

I. Introduction

In this presentation a basic content vocabulary to cover three elementary school disciplinary areas (math, science, social studies) is developed to support immersion teachers and students in their content area teaching by providing key content words and their use in the textbook for the related lessons. This study differs from vocabulary support for imported textbooks from English speaking countries in that the words and their usages are directly quoted from Korean textbooks of math, science and social studies developed in the 7th national curriculum.

II. Method

1. Instruments

To discover common basic academic vocabulary being used in different content areas, an elementary school textbook corpus was created to tabulate frequency of words and their context being used. The elementary school textbook corpus consists of a total of 76 volumes of books (12 textbooks, 12 activity books and 12 teacher's guides for math; 8 textbooks, 8 experimentation and observation books and 8 teacher's guides; 8 textbooks for Seoul area and 8 teacher's guides for social studies). They were scanned and optically character-recognized in ascii format to be input to other analysis tools. Head words for the ECI lexicon were selected based on how frequent the words are and how essential the words are to understand the contents of a lesson.

1) KAIST Morphology Analyzer (KMA)

KMA is a Korean morphology analyzer which was developed with the grant endowed by Ministry of Science and Technology in 2001. It tested its accuracy against 70 million Korean words corpus. KMA analyzes words using two-level model which includes shift action keeping the morphology rules and check action to see if the altered form of word is listed in the dictionary. It was employed to lemmatize and count frequencies of content words appeared in Korean textbook corpus. KMA processes an input text, 10을 5로 나누었다 (10-ul 5-lo nanu-ess-ta 'divided 10 by 5'), into a head word 나누다 (nanu-ta 'divide'). KMA first strips off such particles as -ul 'accusative marker' and -lo 'instrumental marker', and it also decomposes lemma nanu- 'divide', -ess- 'past tense marker' and -ta 'declarative marker'. Arabic numerals are not listed in the dictionary as lemma forms and thus the only lemma taken to be a head word is nanu-ta. After extracting lemma words, KMA counts lemma words to tabulate the frequency and show it along with the lemma. For example, the following procedure illustrates step-by-step analysis:

(1) Analysis Steps
Decatenating words: 철수가/ 책을/ 읽었다
Morphology Analysis: 철수/가/ 책/을/ 읽/었/다
Lemma with frequency count: 학교/ncn + 에 (122)
Lemma with frequency count: 학교/n (537)

2) Natural Language Processing Tools (NLPT)

NLPT is primarily an English analysis tool using CLAWS (the Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System) tag set. It serves multi-purpose analytic tools for frequency counter, concordancer, collocation extractor, tagger, aggregator for the same tagger, sentence counter, grammar pattern extractor and file merger according to the developer Lee, Yong-hun (2007). All the functions except the tagger work for Korean corpus as well. NLPT was used in this research to extract the contextual information of each selected head word in the corpus. Concordancer function of NLPT

helps understand the use of head words and their contextual meaning. The results are useful to generate example sentences of a given head word for ECI basic vocabulary dictionary. Examples of head words, key words and their context are illustrated in the following key words in context (KWIC):

head words	key words	context
공기	공기	[공기]중에서 물체의 무게를
	공기의	[공기의]20% 정도는 산소입니다.
관찰	관찰	테이프에 붙은 씨를 [관찰]
	관찰하여	밤 12시에 북두칠성을 [관찰하여] 봅시다.
	관찰한	종이깃발과 팔랑개비를 두고 [관찰한] 경험이 있습니다.
	관찰합니다	전등불을비추고 변화를 [관찰합니다.]
혼합물	혼합물	여러 가지 고체의 [혼합물]
	혼합물을	[혼합물을] 분리하여 봅시다.
	혼합물에	콩, 쌀, 좁쌀의 [혼합물에] 철가루도 섞여 있다면

Developing dictionary information for integrated language and content learning can be proceduralized as follows:

First, a textbook corpus was created by scanning and optically character-recognizing math, social studies and science textbooks and teacher's guides.

Second, a frequency list was created based on extracted list of words by KAIST morpheme analyzer on the corpus.

Third, key content words were extracted from the list.

Fourth, a list of head words was created based on frequency and usability.

Fifth, collocations, phrasal verbs and examplary uses were surveyed and investigated not only in the corpus but also available English textbooks on-line.

Sixth, dictionary information and conventions were created and got cross-checked by content experts and teachers.

3) Classroom Observation

The purpose of classroom observation is to see how the teachers interact with students in their ECI classes. The classroom activities are observed as non-participant observer and a log of classroom observation was kept. The following considerations were made for the observation:

Focus on how new words are taught in the class. The researcher tried to step back and observe with an almost "empty" mind, i.e., "empty of your prejudgments." This was not as easy as it said, but staying in neutral terms helped record the class as objectively as possible.

Focus on the class as a whole to record every interaction related to vocabulary teaching between the teacher and the class to find out what patterns and subpatterns seem to take place.

Focus also on the nonverbal behavior of the teacher: does he/she move around, make contact by proximity [nearness], with individual students and groups of students? How does the teacher enact his/her relationships with students?

Classroom dynamics tend to be shaped by "critical incidents" which engage our emotions as well as our minds. The observer paid particular attention to such incidents and write them down in descriptive manner.

III. Pilot and Revision

1. Pilot and Feedback

The dictionary was given to two teachers teaching grade 4 of M private elementary school in Seoul where they had been teaching ECI classes. The content target was to identify and draw geometric shapes, angles and other figures, real world application of concepts, review and practice of math

concepts (terminology). The learning objectives were that students would be able to identify, draw and write the name of these shapes by using shape flashcards with a partner, and going on a geometry scavenger hunt after reviewing different geometric figures and terms, .

The dictionary was given to the math ECI teachers in manuscript form. After using the dictionary they gave feedbacks to improve the dictionary. The two teachers were selected on the basis of their differences in teaching new content words.

The differences in teaching ECI classes are: (1) Teacher A introduced new content words and have students learn the concepts before they go into main math activities, and (2) teacher B gave math instructions without explicit introduction of new contents words and instead have students be exposed to new words incidentally. This contrast in teaching is a typical contrast in vocabulary teaching approaches. It was a good measure to see how the dictionary would function in two different teaching approaches.

Teacher A [explicit vocabulary teaching]: On the blackboard she wrote the title of the class and explained students the objectives of the class explicitly. Under the title of the class she listed new words *acute angle, right angle. obtuse angle, cube, pentagon, triangle, perpendicular lines* that are related figures in 4th grade to appear in today's lesson. Apparently she studied these words referring to the ECI dictionary before she came to the class. She referred to the dictionary from time to time during the class. She illustrated angle, acute angle, rectangular and cube to help students understand the new words. She told students that they were going to guess the shape the teacher was drawing. Students were asked to raise their hand when they knew the shape. On a blank white board, she drew geometric figure that students were learning about. She took her time and stopped every so often to call on a student. When a student guessed correctly, she finished the shape and discussed its characteristics as a class (how many sides, how many vertices, whether or not it is three dimensional, etc.).

When students finished the exercise, teacher passed out the Geometry Scavenger Hunt sheets. She told students that they would get a chance to find the shapes they were learning about in real life. She let students walk around the classroom to find these geometric figures. She gave students a sticker or some other small reward if they found all of the shapes and drew a picture of their favorite one they found on the back of the paper.

Teacher B [implicit vocabulary teaching]: She told students that they were going to play a game with a partner. She passed out the Geometry Cards sheets, a pair of scissors, mini whiteboards, dry-erase markers and paper towels to pairs. She asked students to cut out their cards and write the names of the objects they see directly on the back of the cards (with pencil). Students put a list of the object names on the board for students to choose from. After students finished, they reviewed the shapes as a whole class so students made sure they had the correct answers. The procedure went as follows:

(1) Student 1 will select a card without showing Student 2.
(2) Student 1 will draw the shape on the board, and Student 2 will try to guess what it is.
(3) If Student 2 cannot guess after two tries, Student 1 will show them the answer.
(4) Student 2 will then choose a card to draw, and Student 1 will try to guess what it is.
(5) Students take turns until all of the cards have been guessed.

While doing the activity, teacher walked around the classroom, answered students' questions and demonstrated them how to pronounce the words when students had troubles. When she needed, she consulted the dictionary by carrying in her hand during the classroom walk. After the activity was done, she walked around the classroom with some wordless geometry cards and randomly asked students what a particular shape was. Then the teacher asked to tell other students the characteristics of the shape.

(1) Feedback from teachers

Teacher A: From my point of view, the microstructure of an ECI dictionary should be a network of knowledge and concepts, because the entries included in an alphabetical list enriches the user with lots of information about the word. Here one finds not only the explanation or translation of a word,

but also typical expressions in which the word is used, and different contexts in which the word occurs in different meanings, for instance. Thus ECI dictionary should put more emphasis on learning materials which link all the different academic aspects of a word entry.

Teacher B: From my point of view, an ECI dictionary should more like a bi-directional list of words both from English to Korean and from Korean to English, because one is likely to search an English word as well as a Korean word. All the lexical entries should be listed in alphabetical order in both English and Korean. The dictionary should include the target language counterpart, the structural information of each individual lexical entry, English and Korean definition of each entry, examples of sentences and collocations and academic content related to the entry.

2. Revision

After analyzing observations and feedbacks from teachers, ECI dictionary needs revisions in almost all the areas of micro fields of each lexical item. In addition, it requires creation of a new subfield to provide information on learning box.

1) Revised Dictionary Structure

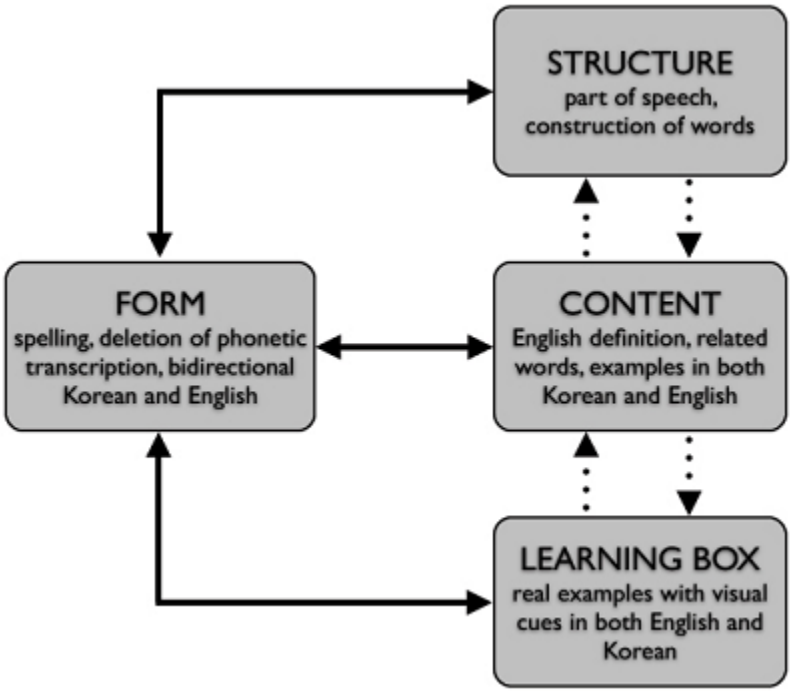
Revised dictionary structure was changed into the following micro-structure taking into consideration of observation and teacher's feedback:

FORM:
spelling, deletion of phonetic transcription, bidirectional Korean and English

STRUCTURE:
part of speech, construction of words

CONTENT:
English definition, related words, examples in both Korean and English

LEARNING BOX:
real examples with visual cues in both English and Korean



[Figure 1] Micro-structure of Revised ECI Dictionary

Form component (head word component) is directly connected to three sub-fields, structure, content and learning box, as indicated by arrowed lines and these three sub-fields are both connected to each other and semi-independent of each other as indicated by arrowed dotted lines.

Biodata

Jeong-ryeol Kim is currently a professor of English at Korea National University of Education. He is a deputy chancellor of the in-service training center at KNUE. He has published numerous articles and books in the area of elementary education, e-Learning and teaching methodologies. He is currently serving as the vice president of KEES, and he was former KOTESOL president, vice-president of KATE and KAPEE.

Needs and Performance in Hotel English as Perceived by Hotel Employees

Wenyuh Shieh
(Minghsin University of Science and Technology, Taiwan)

I. Introduction

Hospitality, a non-smokestack industry has always been considered of paramount importance to national economic growth by countries all over the world. Taiwan is no exception. To boost the island's attractions for overseas visitors, the government has been endeavoring to attract more visitors to this island. In view of the expected increasing demand of capacity to accommodate the growing number of international tourists, there emerges a need for qualified hotel employees with required English proficiency to communicate with guests and provide best accommodation experience. As such, hotel employee's competence in English becomes an essential and specific job requirement to ensure that hotel guests enjoy a satisfying stay and experience service.

As the demand for hospitality personnel trained to deliver high-quality guest service in English continues to grow, such proficiency cannot be promoted without first analyzing carefully what the needs for workplace language really are. Further and unavoidably linked questions are whether or not these perceived needs mesh in with actual performance and whether or not there are gaps between performance and needs. An understanding of such possible gaps in perceptions concerning workplace English can help to draw up the criteria needed to strengthen employees' language proficiency, to consolidate the language required for professional tasks and to improve quality service.

This study, therefore, intends to investigate the international hotel employees' perceptions of the necessary English language needs and their self-assessed performance. Three research questions guided this study:

1. What are the front-of-house English language needs perceived by front-of-house staff?
2. How well do front-of-house staff employees perceive themselves performing in English at work?
3. What gaps are there between needs and performance for front-of -house staff?

II. Related Literature

Traditionally, Hotel English, English for hotel services and catering, has been categorized under the umbrella term of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), an important and dynamic area of specialization within the field of English language teaching and learning. Since the purpose of ESP is to help learners to be equipped with the specific domains of language knowledge and skills, and to apply these skills appropriately in the specific discipline, profession, or workplace, the special language needs of the specified context thus plays a critical role as a prerequisite in securing language successful. A needs analysis (also termed needs assessment) not only enables learners to raise their awareness of specific language requirements concerning their work posts, but also motivates the learners and maximizes the likelihood of promoting active learning.

An important component of needs analysis is the assessment of learners' present language performance so as to measure the gap between present performance and target needs. Performance is the language user's actual production and comprehension of the language. It is as an observable construct (Savignon, 1983) serving as an index to reflect competency, the implicit knowledge a language user has of the system of language. Performance assessment thus refers to assessing how well employees use language knowledge and skills in the specific workplace of the hotel. Several formats have been suggested for conducting performance assessment such as direct observation (Fisher, 1995), introspective and retrospective verbal responses to test tasks (Gibson, 1997), and questionnaires or interviews.

Features and Characteristics of Hotel English

There is no doubt that each hotel has its idiosyncratic version of internal organizational structure, they all share some major divisions. Almost all hotel venues have five major departments among which the Rooms Division and Food & Beverage Division are the two which experience the most

intense contact with guests. In regards to the hotel premises where guests are encountered, the property can further be divided into front of the house and back of the house. The former refers to the parts of hotel premises where customers/guests meet such staff as front desk, people who wait on and house attendants, whereas the latter refers to areas that are not usually seen by guests, i.e., staff-only areas (Wagen, 2003).

All the activities that guests experience in the hospitality service cycle may involve interactive communication including business transactions with front-of-house personnel in all the major departments of the hotel. The hospitality service cycle refers to accommodation needs of guests at three discernable stages, starting possibly with pre-arrival reservation and finishing with post-departure activities (Harun, 1998). Employees follow certain professional conventions and transactional procedure when serving guests in different stages of service encounters. These service encounters conform to certain predictable interacting activities and behavior, and a cluster of identifiable standardization of linguistic requirements (Blue and Harun, 2003).

Framework of the study

As the aforementioned that language performance assessment is an approach which measures not only the process of language learning but also the products of language proficiency with specific tasks in a specific context. A framework of Hotel English Proficiency Assessment (HEPA) is then proposed to support the content in the workplace communicative performance in English in the special context of the hotel sector. Adapted from Bachman's (1989) framework of communicative language ability and Douglas's (2000) specific language ability, the HEPA contains a four-componential concept of competence, namely language competence, pragmatic competence, strategic competence and psychophysical modes and skills for assessing communicative performance at workplace.

III. Methodology

The participants in this study were 652 employees working at international hotels in Taiwan. Since 41 participants did not work at the front-of-house or indicated a scarce of rare communication in English with guests, a total of 601 participants with frequent guest contact in English at front-of-house of Rooms Division and Food and Beverage Division was included in this study.

Research data in this study were collected quantitatively through survey questionnaires distributed to international hotel employees. Since an established survey of hotel personnel's perceptions of hotel English cannot be located through an extensive review of hotel English literature, the items on the questionnaires were constructed from issues and concerns revealed in the foreign language learning literature specifically related to the hotel context and also themes emerged from interviews with Hotel English instructors and hotel personnel in the questionnaire construction phase.

Based on the framework of HEPA, the questionnaire consists of three parts. Part I asks the respondents' demographic information. The 24 items in Part II concern possible situations that the psychophysiological skills are applied to at work and self-assessed language performance of these situations. The 16 items in Part III probe the importance of linguistic skills and language components that respondents perceived and their assessment of how well they performed. Since this study was primarily a descriptive study, each item in the questionnaire was tallied and presented in frequencies and percentage. In addition, means and standard deviations were calculated to provide a sense of the central tendency.

IV. Results

The demographic data in Part I of the questionnaire reveal that among the female (64%) and male (47%) respondents, a high percentage (73%) of them hold a bachelor's degree. Nearly 70% of participants have received in-service training and 73% are provided with common workplace phrasebooks from their hotels.

The results in the questionnaire reveal that the employees rate face-to-face as the most common medium of interaction with guests. Among the four communication skills, listening is perceived as important or very important by 91% of staff, as is speaking 90%. Reading and writing, however, are considered less important. Among the perceived language competencies, the response for vocabulary

is highest and the least rated needs is for grammar. As for the other competencies in HEPA, employees rate accuracy and fluency as the two most important with an over 90% reporting them as important and very important. The remaining English competencies are all rated over 70% with positive rating of important and very important. In various linguistic situations, situations in reading and writing reveal a lower tendency of frequent and always, whereas listening to guests' enquiries (46%) and responding to guest enquiries (38%) remain most encountered situation at workplace.

In view of the self-assessed performance at these competencies and situations, there is a general tendency of lower positive percentage rating, that is 'good' and 'very good' for all the items in the questionnaire. Listening receives the least negative rating among the four skills. In the comparison for the linguistic components, grammar rates the least satisfaction. For reading and writing, although a high percentage record "don't know" for certain reading and writing situations, there is a tendency for the percentage of negative 'not good' and 'not good at all' to outnumber positive 'good' and 'very good'. For performance in common listening situations, listening to guest enquires receives the highest positive rating. The situation receiving the most positive assessment is attending to guest enquiries (41%). As for other HEPA competencies, the results for all of them indicate a higher negative (not good and not good at all) than positive score (good and very good). The use of body language competency attracts the highest positive score (43%) whereas dealing with an emergency situation receives the lowest rating with 23% positive and 67% negative.

To measure the needs with the self-assessed performance means of each item is calculated. Generally, there are gaps existing between the perceived needs and self-assessed performance. Among them, speaking among the four skills receives the greatest gap between the needs ($\overline{X}$ =3.36) and performance ($\overline{X}$ =2.17), followed by the gap in listening (needs $\overline{X}$ =3.36, performance=2.26). Figure 1 below shows the averages of each item in the questionnaire with the needs and performance plotted in the x axis and y axis, respectively. As seen in the figure, the dots in the lower right-hand area reveal those competencies of higher rate of needs yet lower rate of performance. Similarly, dots in the upper-right hand corner indicate competencies of higher rate of needs with higher rate of performance. Dots in the upper left-hand corner show those competencies with lower rate of needs, yet higher rate of performance, and dots in the lower left-hand corner shows the competencies that are less in needs and with lower rate of performance.

V. Conclusion

Hotel English is a specific language use for business transaction and interaction within the specific context of hotel properties. An understanding of the Hospitality English at hotel sector will provide a smooth path to help hotel employees to meet their professional linguistic requirements in a satisfying manner. This study with questionnaire survey reveals perceptions of needs and self-assessed performance from employees working at international hotels in Taiwan. The results contribute to help to draw up the criteria needed to strengthen employees' language proficiency, to consolidate the language required for professional tasks and to improve quality service in the international hotels.

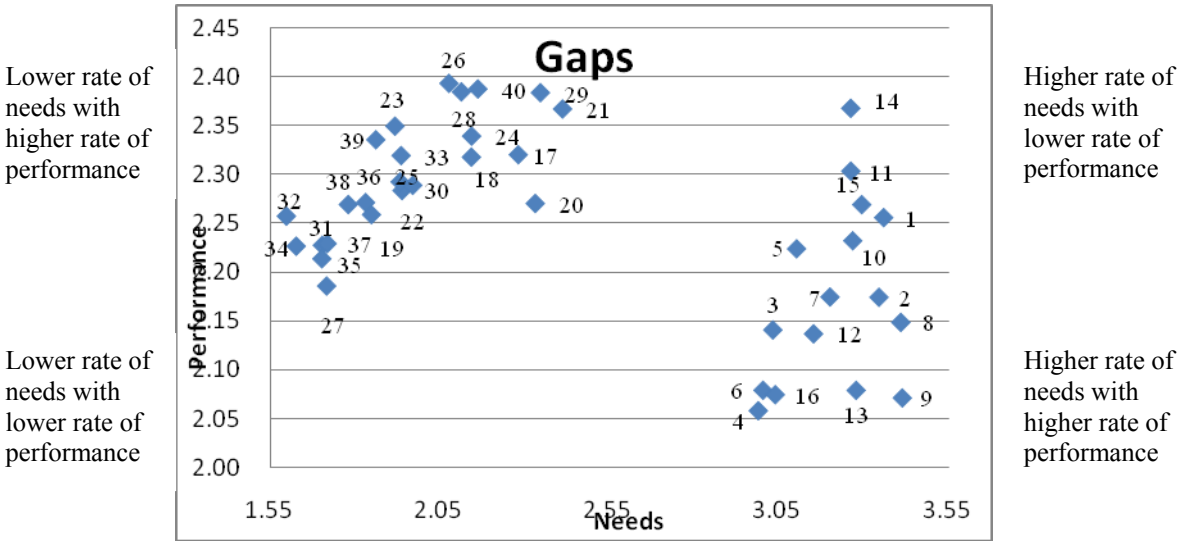


Figure 1 Gaps between needs and self-assessed performance

1. Listening
2. Speaking
3. Reading
4. Writing
5. Pronunciation
6. Grammar
7. Vocabulary
8. Fluency
9. Accuracy
10. Strategies
11. General English
12. Using hotel jargon
13. Dealing with emergency
14. Using body language
15. Politeness register
16. Cross-culture awareness
17. Face to face
18. Telephone
19. Correspondence
20. Listening to different accents
21. Listening to guest enquiries
22. Listening to guest complaints
23. Listening to colleague briefing
24. Explaining service content
25. Introducing local attractions
26. Giving directions
27. Explaining Chinese culture
28. Introducing hotel facilities
29. Responding to guest enquires
30. Responding to guest complaints
31. Doing reports
32. Communicating with coworkers
33. Chatting with guests
34. Reading professional articles
35. Reading business Correspondence
36. Reading job manuals
37. Writing business correspondence
38. Writing Emails
39. Filling out forms
40. Writing messages

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Name: Wenyuh Shieh
Department of Applied Foreign Languages: Minghsin University of Science and Technology, Taiwan
Phone:+886-3-5593142 extension 1234
Email: wyshieh@must.edu.tw

Biodata
Wenyuh Shieh received her Master of Science degree in Curriculum and Instruction from the University of Wisconsin-Madison, in the U.S. She is now a senior lecturer at the Department of Applied Foreign Languages in Minghsin University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. Besides her interest in English for Specific Purposes, she also devotes her research energy to the role of vocabulary knowledge in foreign language teaching and learning, particularly in EFL reading and listening comprehension.

The Magic's in the Music–
So's the History, Culture, and English

Lawrence White (Kookmin University)

I. Introduction

Very often an English class is too much about English, and not enough about the outside world. Sometimes we would like a class where English is just the medium of expression, and not the idée fixe. Wouldn't it be nice to have the language floating along in the background like a melody that makes everything go a little easier and a little better. Here is a proposal that may just well answer your needs. This is an English class that focuses on history and culture as seen through popular music. The starting point of the endeavor was the use of songs that portray historical events from the early 19th century to the present. The rationale of selecting a particular song will be detailed, and the methodology of acquiring the lyrics and the supporting background information will be demonstrated. The preparation of the audio and visual material used in the class as well as the study notes for the class website will also be covered. In addition, the manner of the in-depth presentation and examination of particular incidents, the circumstances surrounding them, and the popular apprehension and mood at the time will also be expounded upon. Student assignments and the expectations of them will likewise be discussed followed by the method of evaluation.

II. Rationale of Selection

To be considered for use in the class, the song needed to be considered "popular" which placed it in the time frame from the mid-nineteen fifties to the present. In addition to this the song had to deal with a historical event or cultural phenomenon.

III. Acquisition of the Lyrics

After a song was selected, lyrics needed to be obtained. In general, the Internet provided the first choice. However, following the advice of Penny Ur (1984), these were not taken on face value, but a careful screening for accuracy with the recorded song was performed. This is necessary as there are often more than one recorded version of a song, and the particular copy of the lyrics in one's possession may not be those of that rendition of the song.

IV. Acquisition of Background Information

As the songs were all in English, and the point of view of them is American, very often, an extensive amount of contextual references was required. Again the Internet provided the stepping stone and the bulk of the material. Wikipedia often provided additional details about individual songs, not to mention associated reference information.

This stage required more than the glossing of unfamiliar terms and expressions. For example, in the song "The Battle of New Orleans" by Johnny Horton, the lines

Old Hickory said we could take 'em by surprise

If we didn't fire our muskets 'til we looked 'em in the eye

required a detailed explanation of what a "musket" was and its influence on the battle, likewise, so did the terms "Old Hickory" and "looked 'em in the eye."

Selection of Background Material

The decision of which contextual elements to include again fell upon the standard tool, "experience and intuition."

Amount of Background Material

The more the better! Unfortunately, curriculum restrictions overrode this. So again a goodly amount of discrimination was required to adjust the material to fit into the allotted time slot of 75 minutes.

V. Preparation of the Audio and Visual Material

Once all of the resources are located and acquired, now is the time to create the showpiece. Other than a volume adjustment, the audio material was suitable as obtained. As the class was quite large, and the size of the classroom on the order of an auditorium, the built-in e-station, projector, and screen were utilized for the visual component of each class. This was in the form of a slide-show using WordPerfect's *Presentations* software.

For a typical class, the following was prepared: The title of the song, and the singer or group performing it were introduced along with photographs of what the singers looked like when the song was recorded, and what they looked like at the present time. This was followed by the lyrics of the song, and then any explanations of linguistic terms or expression s in the lyrics.

Following this, slides were prepared to provide background information of particular items and concepts in the song. Often these would require further slides and explanations. Throughout, keeping the connection to the song as the primary focus of the presentation.

VI. Preparation of Study Notes on Class Website

The class also had a web site wherein the lyrics to each song, the song itself, and study notes were posted. The last was done after the in-class presentation. Study notes were a condensed version of the in-class presentation.

VII. Presentation and Examination of Particular Incidents

Each class began with the playing of the particular song for the day. Then the lyrics of the song were projected and the song was played again. The lyrics were then modeled with the class responding chorally. Any problematic items in the lyrics were then explicated. Then came another performance of the song with the class singing.

Following this the background information and explanations of any and all cultural references were provided along with visual material to enhance the students comprehension of the historical matter contained in the song. Depending upon the particular tune, this could be quite extensive. For example, "The Draft Dodger Rag" by the Four Preps and "I Feel Like I'm Fixin' to Die Rag" by Country Joe and the Fish required significant presentation of the historical development and implementation of the military draft system in the U.S.

VIII. Assignments

Students had a twofold assignment based on the song "We Didn't Start the Fire" by Billy Joel. This song was selected as it contained numerous (approximately 120) references to events that occurred during the singer's lifetime, i.e. 1949 to 1989. In addition, one web site on the Internet, "School for Champions," provided a basis for investigation into each of these.

In-Class Presentations

Groups were formed based on verses in the Billy Joel song consisting of between four to six students. Each student had one to two topics based on an event mentioned in the song upon which they were to give a five minute presentation, in English, before the entire class. These consisted of a slide presentation occasionally with multimedia effects.

Written Reports

Following the presentation, a written report of the material delivered to the class was required. This was condensed and placed on the class web site as study notes for the examinations.

IX. Evaluation

Students were evaluated on the standard criteria of attendance, participation, homework (the report), the presentation, the mid-term examination, and the final examination. Due to the large size of the class, and the time constraints on the standard examination period (75 minutes), it was felt that a paper based test would prove unfair, particularly for the students who received the exam paper last.

To offset this, both examinations were done with the projector. Each student was given an answer sheet. After these were distributed, instructions given, and a demonstration provided, each question was projected on the screen as was the presentation material. After the allocated time, a new slide appeared with a warning sound. This was repeated for each question. For items related to identification of the song and the artist, a brief portion of the song was played with the students required to supply the title of the song and the performing artist.

X. Conclusion-Results

On the whole, the class was successful. As the class was offered as a general studies elective, a diverse representation of majors and classmen enrolled. Student enthusiasm was high and student response strongly positive. Based on feedback during the class, a significant amount of interest was generated. Examination scores closely approximated a normal distribution. Word-of-mouth was definitely positive as a significant number of students regretted their inability of taking the course and inquired as to its being offered in subsequent semesters.

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Biodata
Lawrence White is a full-time lecturer in the Department of English Language and Literature at Kookmin University, in Seoul, Korea. He holds an M.A. in TESL/TEFL from Colorado State University, and a B.G.S. from the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. He was formerly an instructor at the Seoul Education Training Institute and the Ground School of Korean Air in addition to an initial few years at language institutes. Research interests include listening, psycholinguistics, and pronunciation. email: snegbuff9@hanafos.com.

How can English Teachers Choose Good Reading Materials for Bioscience Majors?

Akiko Hagiwara (Tokyo University of Pharmacy and Life Sciences)
Mao Naito (St. Marianna University School of Medicine)

I. Introduction

For English teachers in a science program, choosing reading materials appropriate for the students is often problematic. They need to satisfy students' interests and meet their proficiency levels at the same time. In order to accommodate the needs of students majoring in biomedical sciences, who require considerable English proficiency along with a profound knowledge of scientific vocabulary specific to the field, using content-based reading materials in class is a good solution. However, the implementation of a content-based reading curriculum does not come easy for it requires careful and intensive review of the teaching materials.

The present study explores the use of high frequency word lists to profile authentic reading materials, which is one step toward implementing a content-based EFL program for science majors. In order to profile authentic texts, a word list was created. The list contains a sufficient proportion of technical and sub-technical scientific vocabulary, the basic vocabulary that most college students already know, and high-frequency general and academic vocabulary that are widely used in English. Using such a word list, it is possible to profile any type of text according to ease or difficulty and also technicality. For this purpose, the word list was designed to contain the following sub-lists:

1. Vocabulary that most college-level students already know (the Basic word list)
2. Widely used general vocabulary (the General word list)
3. Widely used academic vocabulary (the Academic word list)
4. Technical and sub-technical vocabulary used in Biosciences (the Scientific word list)

The words in these sub-lists are mutually exclusive, and also the entire list is based on word families rather than lemmas. Because the aim of the present study is to find a way to profile texts for reading skill courses, and it is assumed that the meanings of derived lexical items can be inferred in the text if other forms are already known, we have decided to classify the vocabulary based on word families. The purpose of the profiling procedure is simply to calculate the proportion of each vocabulary type within the text or corpus being profiled.

II. The word list and the profiling procedure

The present study consists of two phases. The first phase was to compile a corpus of bioscience texts (hereafter referred to as the BiSci Corpus) and administer a word recognition test. Based on the test results, we generated a high frequency word list, and created a word list (hereafter referred to as the BiSci Wordlist) composed of four sub-lists. Secondly, we profiled various types of texts and small corpora using this list. By profiling a corpus we can observe the general tendency of vocabulary use in a specific genre, and by profiling texts we can estimate the difficulty and technicality of each text for a specific student group.

The BiSci Wordlist (6720 words) is comprised of four sub-lists, the Basic word list (2136 words), the General word list (882 words), the Academic word list (413 words) and the Scientific word list (3289 words). In addition to this, we created a list of scientific proper nouns and a list of general proper nouns.

The BiSci Wordlist (6720 words) is generated from the BiSci Corpus (BSC). In order to create the BSC, we chose texts based on the curriculums of Tokyo Univ. of Pharmacy and Life Sciences and St. Marianna Univ. School of Medicine. The texts were taken from the 25 different fields of study offered at the two universities (e.g., biochemistry, genetics, anatomy, gastroenterology, respiration system, etc.). We collected 941 texts of 4 million words from various genres (e.g., textbooks, research articles, research protocols and general science reading materials). We then created a high frequency word list, using *WordSmith Tools v.4*, and we grouped the words into word families. For the word list we

selected only the words that appear in more than 10 different texts in the corpus, which resulted in covering 91.12% of the BSC.

In order to create the list of vocabulary that the students know (i.e., the Basic word list), we conducted a word recognition test using the JACET 8000 Word List (2003). A group of 20 undergraduate students at Tokyo Univ. of Pharmacy and Life Sciences participated in the study. They were asked to judge whether they knew the words on the list. We selected the words that more than 80% of the students knew. We also obtained the BNC Wordlist (Scott, 2008) and the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000). Using these three lists, the BiSci Wordlist was grouped into four sub-lists. In order to make the sub-lists mutually exclusive, we prioritized the lists from highest to lowest as follows: the Basic word list, the General word list, the Academic word list, and the Scientific word list. Because a large number of proper nouns are usually contained in corpora, we also created two lists of proper nouns: general proper nouns such as geographical locations, personal names, etc., and scientific proper nouns (e.g., chemical substances, enzymes, etc.).

Using three commercial software products, *WordSmith Tools v.4*, *Microsoft Excel 2004 for Macintosh* and *FileMaker Pro v.7*, we profiled three small corpora: a research article corpus (89 texts, 440,000 words) (C1), a newspaper article corpus (1189 texts, 860,000 words) (C2), and a research abstract corpus (3000 texts, 530,000 words) (C3), and eight individual texts using the BiSci Wordlist. These texts were taken from the following materials: two English language textbooks (Smith, 2005ab) (T1 and T2), two medical English textbooks, (Leonard, 2001) (T3) and (Milner, 2007) (T4), a medical English conversation textbook (Glendinning et al., 2005) (T5), a TV medical drama script (T6), a research paper used in a scientific English course (Davidson et al., 2007) (T7), and Darwin's (1872) *The Origins of Species* (T8).

III. Results and application

Table 1 shows the result for each corpus and text. The proportion of the Basic word list indicates the relative ease of the text / corpus, and the proportion of the Scientific word list and 2007scientific proper nouns indicates the technicality of the text / corpus.

Table: The percentage of words in each sub-list

Sub-list %	C 1	C 2	C 3	T 1	T 2	T 3	T 4	T 5	T 6	T 7	T 8
Basic	67.40	76.43	58.81	79.08	81.70	76.65	79.11	86.75	73.43	49.31	81.19
General	2.54	3.02	2.72	3.38	2.87	2.27	2.83	2.28	1.84	3.44	3.81
Academic	5.86	2.77	6.05	3.46	4.11	2.69	2.78	0.42	0.57	3.53	3.84
Scientific	10.03	4.93	12.19	4.82	3.62	11.45	7.14	3.34	3.23	11.48	4.65
S P nouns	5.29	1.86	8.12	1.23	0.57	2.63	1.76	0.96	3.71	14.92	0.50
G P nouns	3.06	4.76	3.87	3.58	2.25	2.07	3.60	4.30	11.49	12.25	1.08
other	5.83	6.22	8.25	4.45	4.88	2.25	2.77	1.95	5.73	5.07	4.92

As expected, the newspaper corpus contains more vocabulary widely known by Japanese college students, whereas the proportion of known vocabulary in the abstract corpus is much smaller. Regarding the technicality of the texts, scientific texts, in general, contain a higher proportion of bioscience vocabulary (C1, C3, T3, T7) compared to other types. In newspaper articles, the use of technical vocabulary was limited in even when the topics of the articles were related to bioscience. The only sample of spoken language, the medical drama script (T6), contains only a small portion of academic vocabulary just as the conversation textbook (T5) did. This reflects tendency avoid using big words in conversation. Thus, by classifying texts based on the vocabulary they contain, we can obtain rich information about the characteristics of texts without actually reading them. It is still necessary to verify the usefulness of the BiSci wordlist for profiling purposes, but it surely provides a way to select reading materials that meets the students' needs.

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Akiko Hagiwara
School of Life Sciences
Tokyo University of Pharmacy and Life Sciences
Phone: +81-42-676-7051
Email: hagiwara@ls.toyaku.ac.jp

Mao Naito
English Program
St. Marianna University School of Medicine
Phone: +81-44-977-8111
Email: m2naito@marianna-u.ac.jp

Biodata
Akiko Hagiwara teaches English at Tokyo Univ. of Pharmacy and Life Sciences. Her research interests include corpus linguistics, content-based teaching, SLA and pragmatics. Mao Naito teaches English at St. Marianna Univ. School of Medicine. Her research interests include content-based teaching, ESP and comparative culture and literature. They have been working together to create teaching materials for students in the field of biosciences.

Motivational Response Patterns During Task-based Group Work: A Complex Systems Perspective

Glen Poupore (Korea University)

I. Introduction

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), with its use of interactive small group work tasks, is increasingly becoming the choice methodology in English language teaching classrooms around the world. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) points out in his review of the major trends in language teaching, the word 'task' has replaced 'communicative' as the all-pervasive methodological label within the field. Acting to support this rise in popularity has been the rich body of research which has gone into investigating interactive tasks (R. Ellis, 2003; Long, Forthcoming). Such research, however, has been largely framed within a cognitive-linguistic perspective in which the primary focus of analysis has been on language learner output. Psychological or socio-affective variables such as learners' task motivation, meanwhile, have been relatively ignored. This is despite the fact that motivation is often assumed to be a precondition to active cognitive involvement and that research is increasingly demonstrating the importance of the socio-affective domain to both general learning and language learning in particular (Arnold, 1999; Goleman, 2005). Empirically, therefore, it is of interest for L2 educators and researchers to investigate learners' motivational responses during task performance and to identify the motivational properties which may underlie different tasks.

Complex Systems Theory

An emerging theoretical paradigm that is increasingly influencing a variety of academic disciplines including science, geography, economics, organizational management, medicine, psychology, and education, is the notion of complex systems. Related to chaos theory and to dynamic systems theory, it essentially involves the study of systems or phenomena which are dynamic and complex. Dynamism exists in a system if it is in a continual process of change while complexity exists if it contains a large number of variables that do not function in isolation to each other but instead continuously interact to produce change in the system as a whole over time. Change is therefore central to the theory in which the ultimate purpose is to better understand how change occurs, how and what factors interact to produce it, and the kinds of consequences it gives rise to. Because of its complexity, interconnectedness, dynamism, and openness, i.e. being open to energy and matter from outside the system, change in complex systems cannot be explained through simple or linear cause and effect relationships but rather emerges through self-organized, non-linear, and in many ways unpredictable mechanisms. Specific examples of complex systems would include a colony of termites, the weather system, the financial market, a school system, and just about any collection of humans such as a family, a committee, and a group of students within a classroom. An individual human being also functions as a complex system, as does the human brain and the mental processes that accompany it.

The behavior of a complex system is often described through what is referred to as an 'attractor' which represents "a region of a system's state space into which the system tends to move… [they are] states, or particular modes of behavior, that the system prefers" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, p. 49-50). The attractor state of a complex system is essentially a result of how the different elements and agents are working together to position it within its state space. Key constructs which are part of attractors are the co-existence of stability and variability. If a complex system is said to be operating within a stable mode of behavior, and therefore functioning within a strong attractor, it cannot be described as being fixed since variability is also present within and around the attractor (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Variability is present because the system is open to outside matter and because the interaction among the elements are in a continuous process of change. In other words, there is always possibility for "future change and development" (p.56) or what is referred to as a 'phase shift' in which the system will move into a new attractor region. Thus, the behavior of a complex system within an attractor state can best be described as 'stability in motion' or as 'dynamic stability' (p. 32) in which the system is able to maintain its relative stability through adaptation to

contextual changes but at the same time may experience a more sudden and dramatic change at any moment.

The field of applied linguistics is no exception to the widening influence of complex systems theory. From both SLA perspectives (Dornyei, 2009b; N. C. Ellis, 2006; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) and educational perspectives (Tudor, 2001), complex systems theory is quickly emerging as a new paradigm within the field. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008), for instance, summarize these perspectives and apply complexity theory to various areas including language and its evolution, first and second language or interlanguage development, discourse and language use, and the contexts in which the language is learned (e.g. a language classroom), including the many affective, cognitive, and social factors which interact to influence the learning process.

In relation to individual difference variables (IDs), Dornyei (2009b) has also recently adopted a complex systems perspective. For Dornyei, IDs can be seen as complex systems for two important reasons. Firstly, unlike traditional notions, IDs are neither stable nor context-independent. The context continually interacts with and influences the ID variable, thus producing possibilities for change. Secondly, IDs are multi-componential and interlinked at various levels. IDs such as motivation and language aptitude, for instance, function as higher order attributes which subsume a range of sub-components and sub-processes which continually interact with each other. Motivation, for example, will not only include motivational sub-components, but will also include a variety of cognitive and emotional components. Indeed, for Dornyei, cognition, motivation, and affect are inseparable and function as part of what he refers to as the 'trilogy of the mind'. A complex systems view of motivation is also clearly evident in his L2 Motivational 'Self-System' model in which intrinsic, extrinsic, and learning situation motives combine and work together in the achievement of one's 'ideal' and 'ought-to' L2 self (2009a).

A view of L2 motivation as a complex systems construct is also present in the work of Ushioda (Ushioda, 2009). For Ushioda, L2 motivation is "an organic process that emerges through the complex system of interrelations" among various elements including the learner as a "self-reflective intentional agent, and the fluid and complex system of social relations, activities, experiences and multiple micro- and macro-contexts in which the person is embedded" (p. 220). One of these contexts, of course, relates to learners' classroom learning experiences and the communicative tasks they are asked to perform with other learners. In this way, task motivation and L2 motivation as a whole can be seen to function within 'nested' levels in which each is part of the other. Task motivation itself, especially within a group work context, may also be seen as a complex system with many internal and external elements working together to influence its state space trajectory. Indeed, it was one of the purposes of the research study to provide a complex systems description of task motivation as a process-oriented and multicomponential construct.

II. The Research Study

Research Purpose

The research question which framed the study consisted of the following: How do learners' motivational responses vary during tasks and what elements act to influence motivational response patterns? Through this enquiry, therefore, I would be able to identify which tasks produced relatively higher or lower motivational response levels and which would remain in dynamic stability and which would experience a phase shift during the process of task performance. I would also be able to observe how the various elements work together to influence the motivational response levels or attractors of different tasks and in doing so perhaps identify what is referred as the 'control parameters' (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) within the task conditions which may hold the key to understanding change in the complex system of task motivation.

Research Setting and Research Instruments

Data collection for the research study was conducted over the course of one year during two 20-week semesters in which the same 15 tasks were administered to four different class groups enrolled in an English communication course. The students and/or participants for the research study consisted of 38 Korean English teacher trainees (27 females, 11 males) as part of a TESOL certificate program.

A variety of research instruments were used for data collection including various questionnaires, structured interviews, audio/video recordings, transcriptions, and an observational group work dynamic measuring instrument.

In order to measure task motivation and other socio-affective factors in process, a pre-task, during-task, and post-task questionnaire were used. The pre-task and post-task questionnaires were adapted from Boekaerts (2002) On-Line Motivation Questionnaire. They were used to measure pre/post variation in relation to the following variables: task attraction/enjoyment, learning intention/reported effort, success expectation/result assessment, task relevance, emotional state, and perceived difficulty. The post-task questionnaire also included a section measuring perceived group dynamic. The during-task questionnaire, meanwhile, essentially consisted of two graphs with one measuring current level of interest in the task and the other measuring comfort level (emotional state) on a scale of one to five. The Y-axis on the graphs represented the learners' level of interest/comfort and the X-axis represented the different time points during the task which were signaled by the teacher-researcher at time intervals of roughly 5 minutes.

The participants also completed questionnaires measuring their general trait disposition in relation to L2 motivation and anxiety based on questionnaire items from Gardner's Attitude Motivation Test Battery (see Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). Following each task (and after the end of class), furthermore, select students from each of the 4 class groups with a total of 16 participated in structured interviews in which they were asked to discuss their affective responses in relation to the tasks. Two student work groups from one of the class groups (not always containing the same group members), moreover, were videotaped and recorded for the purpose of collecting data in relation to observing and measuring group work dynamic. While group dynamic was in one sense already measured in the post-task motivation questionnaire, it was my belief that I could obtain a richer, more detailed, and more 'objective' account of a group's social dynamic through a structured observation instrument which was designed by the researcher. A total of 30 work groups were therefore recorded in which both verbal and nonverbal language were also transcribed for analysis.

Results and Discussion

Results for pre/post total motivation variation for each of the 15 tasks acted as the point of departure for analysis. In relation to motivational patterns, five main types emerged from the data: tasks which showed (1) a steadily high pattern, (2) a steadily low pattern, (3) an increasing fluctuation pattern, (4) a decreasing fluctuation pattern, and (5) a steadily 'mid-level' pattern. Focusing on the more extreme cases for each pattern (except for the 'mid-level' pattern), it was decided to select the two tasks which demonstrated the strongest results. Thus, two tasks represented the steadily high pattern, two the steadily low pattern, two the increasing pattern, and two the decreasing pattern. In regard to the difference between the steadily high tasks and the steadily low tasks, statistical tests revealed a significant difference at both the pre-task and post-task stages. While the two decreasing fluctuation tasks revealed a statistically significant decrease in motivation, the two increasing fluctuation tasks did not. As a result, the two increasing fluctuation tasks were dropped from the investigation. The remainder of the analysis was therefore centered on explaining the 'why' factor for each of the 6 focus tasks, i.e. identifying the various elements which worked together to maintain a relatively high motivational response, to maintain a relatively low motivational response, and to produce a decreasing motivational response. Due to space limitations, the details of these findings cannot be discussed here. What can be said in terms of general findings, however, especially from a complex systems perspective, are the following:

- various elements interact together to influence motivational response patterns and these include: sense of enjoyment, effort, success expectancy, task relevance, emotional state, perceived difficulty, group work dynamic, motivational and anxiety-related traits, and task condition and task topic related dimensions

- motivational response patterns are not a consequence of one particular variable acting as a dominant force but are a consequence of different combinations of the aforementioned variables, including those tasks which demonstrated the same pattern; in the case of the two decreasing fluctuation tasks, for example, results showed that while reported effort and perceived relevance were important elements in the downward phase shift for one of the tasks, it was not for the other, and while emotional state was a factor for the latter task it was not for the former

- certain task condition and task topic-related elements were identified as possible 'control' parameters having an important motivational influence, the most important ones being task complexity and whether the topic is associated with more immediate personal life issues such as personal growth and human relationships (more positive motivational effect) or whether it is associated with more remote and abstract issues such as those related to global issues and society-based problems (less positive effect)

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Glen Poupore
Department of English Language and Literature
Applied Linguistics/TESOL Division
Korea University
Phone: 82-2-3290-1981
Email: glen.poupore@gmail.com

Biodata:
Dr. Glen Poupore is from Canada and has been an English teacher and teacher trainer in Korea for several years. He has a PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Birmingham and is currently an assistant professor in the Department of English Language and Literature (Applied Linguistics/TESOL Division) at Korea University. His areas of interest include language teaching methodology, principally task-based language teaching (TBLT), L2 motivation, group work dynamic, and complex systems theory as applied to language learning and to research methodology.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) Approach in EFL Contexts

Choonkyong Kim (St. Cloud State University)

I. The Project

This paper outlines an example of a task-based language teaching (TBLT), which can be modified for different levels of language proficiency and different context of language learning.

Participants: A total of 16 international students enrolled in a college-level course on Listening and Speaking for Academic Purposes participated in the study. The following first languages were represented in this group: Nepalese, Chinese, Vietnamese, Korean, and Hmong. All of the participants were full-time students majoring in various areas of academic disciplines.

Description and Procedure of Task: The assignment described in this paper was given at the end of the semester, when the participants had spent at least one semester as full-time international students at a U.S. university. The participants were instructed to work with one or two partners. The task was to produce a PowerPoint (PPT) slideshow designed to provide practical information for new international students who would be arriving at the start of the following semester. The content of this assignment was intended to put the participants in the position of experts.

Example topics included tips on housing options, advantages and disadvantages of on-campus meal plans, and other areas of student life on or off-campus. It was required that, to prepare the PPT slideshow, the participants gather information by reading available documents and/or interviewing people. The participants reviewed and discussed the materials with their partners to decide how to sort and organize the information in their PPT slideshows. This step of the procedure involved multiple revisits to the source documents (purpose-driven reading) and multiple rounds of negotiation among peers (meaningful input and output in oral language). The participants were instructed not to put too much text in their slides, and this requirement prompted further negotiation because each slide needed to be edited carefully so that it contained an appropriate amount of textual information. Both outside-of-class (planning and information gathering) and in-class time (creating visual PPT slideshows under the instructor's monitoring) was utilized for this project.

When the visual PPT slideshow was ready at the end of the pair/group work, each participant rehearsed to record an audio commentary. The directions for this part of the task were very simple. Each participant was supposed to work independently (1) to review the PPT slideshow first, (2) to prepare a bullet-point note to comment on each slide, (3) to rehearse commenting on each slide using the bullet-point notes as many times as needed, and finally (4) to audio-record their commentary for each slide using the PPT audio feature. At this step of the procedure, several students met with the instructor for further feedback and practice. The participants also wrote a reflective journal to talk about the experience of recording audio comments in a PPT slideshow.

II. Discussion

The procedure described in this paper is an example of TBLT, in which attention to language form is naturally embedded in a broader communicative task. Another feature of this specific task is its technological appeal to today's multimedia-savvy language learners. In addition, the structure of the task allows individualized feedback from the instructor and a possibility for easy adaptation to multilevel classes.

Attention to Language Form: This task supports student-initiated attention to language form in the context of performing an authentic communicative task at two separate steps. First, when preparing a visual slideshow, the students understand that the slideshow is a final product that will be shown to an authentic audience (i.e., beyond their language teacher, who will view the slideshow for grading). This understanding helps the learners to take on a self-imposed role of an editor, who then consults with other experts (their peers or the instructor) or refer to resource materials (a writer's manual or dictionary, etc.) for accuracy of their language use. At this stage, because the students are working in pairs or groups, attention to language form is demonstrated through negotiated editing or revising of the text. Second, when individual students prepare the audio commentary for each slide,

there is a considerable amount of rehearsals predominantly for improved accuracy and fluency in the final recording. According to the reflective journals, students voluntarily rehearsed and re-recorded their audio commentaries multiple times (in some cases over ten times) until they were satisfied with their pronunciation and overall fluency. A post-task interview with the students also revealed that accuracy in language use is considered important in such a task specifically because it is part of the final product of the task to be shown to an authentic audience. At the same time, it is worth noting that accuracy in and of itself is not the goal of the task, but perceived to be important for effective communication with the audience.

Other Advantages of the Task: The nature of the current task has a strong appeal to today's language learners, most of whom are familiar with and interested in using multimedia for both learning and entertainment. Creating PPT slideshows is already a preferred choice for most college-level students in their various academic work such as preparing for class presentations. However, an informal survey showed that many students are not familiar with recording audio commentaries in PPT slideshows although many have the experience of adding audio files such as music or other sound effects. Recording audio commentaries as a companion piece to a PPT slideshow was generally perceived to be a fun project by the participants in this study. This was a natural blend of the familiar and the unfamiliar, which helped define the task as something to both enjoy and learn to do (Willis & Willis, 2007).

One final note on the advantage of the task described in this study is an important one for both students and instructors. The task starts out as a collaborative project that promotes peer-to-peer interaction and cooperation through language use. Yet, the culminating component (i.e., audio commentaries) is done individually, which allows individual feedback and evaluation. It is this individualized completion of the common task that pushes individual learners to commit to the task with individualized effort. It also makes it possible for the instructor to provide individualized feedback both during the process and after the completion of the task. For this reason, this task is also adaptable to multilevel classes, in which the task can start as a group project and be modified to suit individual learners' ability in the target language.

III. Conclusion

The task described in this paper is a simple everyday task that is already familiar to most college-level students. With the additional element of recording audio commentaries, this familiar task can provide the structure for TBLT, in which attention to language form is self-directed within an authentic communicative task, which is already most students' everyday practice in their academic and professional performances, i.e., creating PPT slideshows. It provides an opportunity for balanced integration of language use for communication and attention to form for language learning (Nation, 2001).

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Choonkyong Kim
Department of English
St. Cloud State University
1-320-308-3245
ckim@stcloudstate.edu

Biodata

Choonkyong Kim received a Ph.D. from University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign with an emphasis on second language vocabulary acquisition. Currently, she is an associate professor of applied linguistics in the MA-TESL Program at St. Cloud State University in Minnesota, where she

also directs the College ESL Program. Her research interests include vocabulary acquisition and task-based language teaching.

The Effects of Topic Preparation and Vocabulary Instruction on L2 Listening Comprehension

Jihye Kwon (International Graduate School of English)

I. Introduction

Considering complex and dynamic mental processes of L2 listening, many professionals emphasize that listening support is essential in the listening class. Accordingly, research regarding the effectiveness of different types of activities such as providing linguistic information, and non-linguistic clues for establishing context are on the rise. To address this situation within the context of high school in Korea, this study aims to check if a student‘s listening comprehension could be facilitated by the use of two different types of listening support: one linguistic support, which is vocabulary, and one nonlinguistic support, particularly topical knowledge. These two types of support seemed reasonable because background knowledge on a certain topic and lexical knowledge are two main sources of information L2 listeners rely on when they listen to the L2 input (Rost, 2002). Therefore, the specific research questions of this study are:

(1) Does providing students with topical knowledge help their L2 listening comprehension for a transactional purpose?

(2) Does pre-teaching vocabulary help students’ L2 listening comprehension for a transactional purpose?

II. Methods

1. Participants

The participants in this study were 107 Grade 10 Korean students in a girls’ high school in Gwangju. The classes were randomly assigned to one of the three conditions: control group (henceforth CG), vocabulary instruction group (henceforth VI), and topic preparation group (henceforth TP).

2. Materials

The instruments of this study included (a) listening comprehension test material, (b) supplementary materials for TP group, and (c) supplementary materials for VI group. To develop the L2 listening comprehension test, the researcher adopted five listening passage from books for EFL students. Passages were selected mainly in consideration of topic familiarity and the difficulty level. The characteristics of passages are summarized in Table 1. All of these passages were thought to be unfamiliar to the students. With those listening passages, a 25-question Listening Comprehension Test was developed by adapting some suggested comprehension questions in the book. The reliability of the test was analyzed using TestAn 1.0, which is a test item analysis program, It was .657. To increase the reliability, six questions (2, 4, 5, 15, 17, and 23) of the Listening Test were removed, and the reliability of the test increased to .687. Thus 19 questions remained and were used for the analysis.

Table 1: A Summary of Characteristics of Five Listening Passages

	Blue Moon	Red Moon	Edward Hopper 1	Edward Hopper 2	The Louisiana Purchase
Text type	Conversation	Lecture	Conversation	Lecture	Conversation
Total words	189	201	320	233	175
wpm	143.54	158.68	153.60	158.86	164.06
Duration	1m 19sec	1m 16sec	2m 5sec	1m 28sec	1m 4sec
Difficulty level	2.9	6.6	5.1	6.8	5.4

Supplementary material for the TP group consisted of three short articles collected from several internet websites. The articles provide background information about the topic and they are all written in Korean. All materials presented general information about the topic of the test listening passage, but excluded particular facts that were the basis of answers to the items on the test.

Supplementary material for VI group was a list of words that appeared in listening passages explained above. The words in the material were selected from listening texts in a Listening Comprehension Test by the researcher and a teacher who participated in this research. Words on the list were arranged alphabetically to prevent students from guessing the listening content from the words given.

3. Procedures

1) Topic Preparation Group (TP): Students in TP group were given supplementary materials and were asked to talk with classmates or to the teacher for the first 30 minutes of a 50 minute class. These materials contained three short reading passages and a presentation file (which was about the topics in listening material). Students were given two minutes to read each passage. After reading they were given 2 or 3 simple discussion questions and five minutes to talk with a partner about questions given. For the last 16 minutes of the class, the listening test was administered.

2) Vocabulary Instruction Group (VI): After distributing a supplementary worksheet for this group (which contains 60 English words with its Korean definition followed by an example sentence), the teacher modeled the pronunciation of each word for about ten minutes. For the next fifteen minutes students had time to study by themselves and were allowed to ask the teacher any questions. After that, they had a memory game (five minutes) where students were asked to give the Korean equivalent for English words teacher produced or English word for the Korean equivalent. For the last 16 minutes of the class, the listening test was administered.

3) Control Group (CG): CG treatment did not involve any preparatory activity for the test but they had regular reading class for the first 30 minutes of the class hour before the test. The reading material contained nothing relevant to the test content. Then students took the listening test for 16 minutes.

4. Data Analysis

To control the possible initial difference in L2 listening proficiency, ANCOVA was conducted using the scores of the diagnostic test (EBS Listening Test in September 2008) as a covariate for the accurate examination of treatment effect. The dependent variable in the analysis was the scores of the Listening Test (L2 Listening Comprehension Test), and the independent variable was Group (CG, VI, and TP). The significance level was set at 0.05.

III. Results

The descriptive statistics of the Listening Comprehension Test are provided in Table 2. According to the result, the mean score on the Listening Comprehension Test of 107 subjects was 9.18 (48.32%) out of a possible maximum of 19. The TP group scored the highest (10.55%), followed by the CG (8.74%), and the VI group was the lowest (8.16%).

A result of ANCOVA presented in Table 3 revealed that there was significant difference among the three groups. A pairwise comparison was conducted to identify exactly which mean was significantly different from the others. Table 4 shows that the TP group outperformed CG and VI groups, and those CG and VI groups were not significantly different in the effects of each support. In short, TP is effective as listening support while VI is not.

Table 2: Source table: ANOVA of the Effects of Group and Level on Listening Comprehension Test

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Diagnostic test	151.616	1	151.616	14.396	.000**
Group	121.226	2	60.613	5.755	.004*
Error	1084.767	103	10.532		

* p<.05 **p<.01

Table 3: Pairwise Comparisons for the Differences among Groups

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.[a]
TP	CG	1.983*	.787	.040
	VI	2.377**	.745	.006
CG	TP	- 1.983*	.787	.040
	VI	.395	.787	1.000
VI	TP	-2.377**	.745	.006
	CG	-.395	.787	1.000

* p<.05 **p<.01

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

The current study resulted in two major findings about the effects of two different types of listening support on L2 listening comprehension. One is that providing topical knowledge as listening support activity benefits students. The other one is studying unknown words before listening might result in no helpful effect on L2 listening. This is consistent with previous studies done by Chang and Read (2006).

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Jihye Kwon
ELT Department
International Graduate School of English
Phone: 010-9567-4718
Email: kerez@igse.ac.kr

Biodata

Jihye Kwon is currently working on M.A. in the department of English Language Teaching at International Graduate School of English. She has four-year-teaching experience at public high schools in Gwangju.

Learn English Kids:
Online learning materials for the Elementary English Classroom

Michael Bowles(British Council, Korea)

For a number of years the British Council has hosted a range of online English language learning materials specifically designed for Elementary–aged children learning English as a foreign or additional language on a dedicated website (LearnEnglish Kids). They include animated stories, songs and games, as well as downloadable worksheets and flashcards. However, they are not easily accessible and useable by public school teachers due to the instructions being only in English and the lack of links to the national curriculum.

To help address this, the British Council has worked with Professor Ihm Hee Jeong from Seoul National University of Education and EBS to map the materials to the current Korean Elementary English Education Curriculum and host them on the recently relaunched EBS-E website (www.ebse.co.kr). They come with instructions in Korea, how they can be linked to the National Curriculum and teaching tips on the best way of exploiting them in the Korean Elementary classroom.

This workshop will demonstrate some of these materials and show how they can be effectively used in the Korean classroom, as a way of enhancing lessons, providing exposure to language rich input and providing greater challenge for learners with higher levels of English language proficiency.

E-mail address: michael.bowles@britishcouncil.or.kr

Bio-data
Michael Bowles has been an English teacher and Education manager for nearly 13 years and in that time has worked and taught in South Korea, Hong Kong and the UK. He holds both the Cambridge Certificate and Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA and DELTA) and is also an approved CELTA main course tutor. He completed his Masters Degree in Education in 2006 and his thesis was about the role of online tutors in supporting teacher education through asynchronous computer-mediated communication.

He is currently Head of Professional ELT (English Language Teaching) Development at the British Council in Seoul, Republic of Korea and runs courses and workshops for Korean state school teachers of English as well as managing other English Projects. His main areas of interest are teacher education, materials design and task based learning.

Online Communities and EFL Instruction

Jihyung Hong (University of Florida)
Sean. M. Witty (University of Florida)

I. Introduction: practical limits

Since its inception in the early 1990s, the Internet has offered the potential to take language learning beyond the traditional limitations of the classroom, especially in EFL contexts, which stand to benefit greatly from Internet integration. The Internet is now a kind of encyclopedia of learning where learners can access materials and share experiences with others. In learning English, the Internet can be applied to listening, speaking, reading, and writing courses. However, since Internet-usage cannot provide a concrete method for every instructor and may vary greatly depending on various teaching approaches and pedagogies (Garrett, 1991), studies on the usefulness of the Internet, which can give teachers and students direct benefits, could be more practical than learning theories related to the Internet (Mcmanus, 1996). Nevertheless, it is precisely in these contexts, EFL, where Internet usage is employed to the least degree. In general, EFL instructors rarely take advantage of the Internet because (1) they often lack the skills and/or motivation to plan, program, and develop websites; (2) they do not have free server-space available to host class websites that do more than list a syllabus and course schedule; and/or (3) institution-provided server-space is limited to in-house use, thereby making it difficult for instructors to take their class websites with them when they change positions.

These days, many websites feature community-based environments, e.g., Cyworld, Multiply, Google Groups, etc., that EFL educators can easily put to use as Learning Management Systems (LMSs) because they provide easy-to-use tools that make it simple to construct and maintain websites without having to learn additional technical skills. Moreover, although many students are already familiar with these same community-based web sites and probably log-in frequently, the potential usefulness of these site in EFL has yet to be explicitly discussed within the field.

Some Internet features, such as email, BBS, video files, etc., have been frequently mentioned in learning through the Internet. The community on most portal sites is basically equipped with a homepage, a BBS, some sort of chat protocol, and a file uploading system that can enable learners to learn with multimedia in one online space. Thus, instructors can reduce their technical burdens and, because these sites are offered for free, they don't even have to buy a domain or construct a single webpage. Despite that fact, many studies related to Internet usage have rarely indicated how these community environments and tools can be beneficial to listening, speaking, reading, and writing courses in EFL education. For that reason, this study examines how community environments can be utilized as LMSs in EFL education, and will specifically address how teachers can use their features to support each aspect of English learning: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This study will also suggest some useful communities for each aspect of language learning.

II. Online Communities: skills involved

An online community, e-community or virtual community is a group of people that primarily interact via communication media such as newsletters, telephone, email, internet social network service or instant messages (rather than face to face) for social, professional, educational or other purposes. Early communities focused on bringing people together to interact with each other through chat rooms, and share personal information and ideas around any topic through personal homepage publishing tools which were a precursor to the blogging and social networking phenomenon. The explosive diffusion of the Internet since the mid-1990s has fostered the proliferation of online communities. With technical development, software tools provided from portal sites abound to create and nurture theses communities including Google Groups, Daum Café, Cyworld Club, Facebook groups, etc.

To determine the potential educational application of these online communities in the EFL context, we selected fourteen communities and then scrutinized their environments to discover the main tools,

functions, and unique features being provided both for a community manager and its members. The standards of selection were popularity, i.e., sites with which many people are already familiar and frequently log in, and language, i.e., those serviced within Korea and serviced within the United States, which includes most internationally-known websites. Table 1 gives a list of the investigated communities.

Korean community sites	Cyworld Club http://club.cyworld.com/ Daum Café http://club.cyworld.com/ Nate Club http://club.nate.com/ Naver Café http://cafe.naver.com/ Paran Club http://club.paran.com/
English community sites	Facebook Group http://www.facebook.com/home.php/groups.php Freindfeed Group http://friendfeed.com/groups/search Google Groups http://groups.google.com/ Multiply http://multiply.com/ Orkut http://www.orkut.com/ Wiggio http://www.wiggio.com/ Windows Live Groups http://groups.live.com/ Yahoo! Groups http://groups.yahoo.com/ zShare http://zshare.net

[Table 1. The investigated online communities]

After examining these community websites, we determined that the provided tools by each fall into four basic categories: file hosting systems, online chat, BBS (Bulletin Board System) / blog, and content management systems. Although the construction, layout, and key features may different from website to website, all of their services generally fall into one of these categories, with some websites offering unique features or possessing strengths compared to others.

1. File hosting system

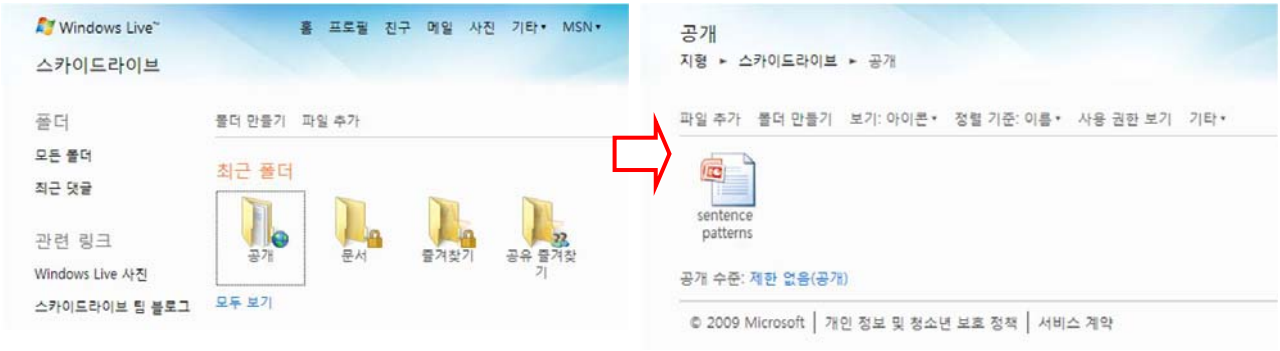
A file hosting system or online file storage system is an Internet hosting system specifically designed to host static content, typically large files. They allow web and FTP access and can be optimized for serving many users or be optimized for single-user storage. It offers a sort of "network storage" for personal backup, file access, or file distribution. Users can upload their files and share them publicly or keep them password-protected.

File Hosting Service	Google Groups	Files
	Nate Club	Jaryosil
	Multiply	Media Locker
	Wiggio	Folders
	Windows Live Groups	SkyDrive
	Yahoo! Groups	Files
	zShare	File Hosting, Image Hosting, Video Hosting, Audio Hosting, Flash Hosting

[Table 2. Communities with file hosting service]

Table 2 shows the community sites which offer their own file hosting system. Each of them serves limited file uploading capacity, for example, SkyDrive provides 25GB storage and zShare 2GB.

As an example, SkyDrive is illustrated in Picture 1. When users click on the SkyDrive, they can choose an appropriate folder for uploading files. It could be an open folder or a private folder between members. After uploading files, it appears in the selected parent folder and members can download the files that are in that folder.



[Picture 1. SkyDrive in Windows Live Groups]

2. Online chat

Online chat can refer to any kind of communication over the Internet, but is primarily meant to refer to direct one-on-one chat or text-based group chat, using tools such as instant messengers (IMs) and chat rooms. Most investigated communities include an online chat system of some sort; chat rooms usually provide text-chat environments and IMs, which members must download to use and can be operated in both text and video/audio chat modes. Table 3 shows the communities with online chat service as well as the types of system they have.

Online Chat Service	Cyworld Club	Text chat: Chat Room
	Daum Café	Text chat: Chat Room Text/video/audio chat: Daum Touch Messenger
	Nate Club	Text chat: Chat Room Text/video/audio chat: Nateon Messenger
	Naver Café	Text chat: Chatting
	Orkut	Text/audio chat: Online Friends
	Wiggio	Text chat: Chat Room
	Windows Live Groups	Text/video/audio chat: Windows Live Messenger
	Yahoo! Groups	Text/video/audio chat: Yahoo Messenger

[Table 3. Communities with online chat service]

3. BBS / Blog

A Bulletin Board System (BBS) is a computer system running software that allows users to connect and login to the system using a terminal program. Once logged in, a user can perform functions such as downloading or uploading software and data, reading news, and exchanging messages with other users through public message boards. Today, the term BBS is often used to refer to any online forum or message board whose purpose is to exchange messages and information with other members.

A blog has a similar function to a BBS but is usually maintained by an individual who regularly uploads commentary, descriptions of events, or other material such as graphics or video. The personal blog, an ongoing diary or commentary by an individual, is the traditional, most common blog. Blogging allows sharing thoughts and feelings instantaneously with friends and family and appeals to an online generation that is already too busy to keep in touch.

Since BBS is a basic function of any web page, it is a key function of all the communities on our list. All of them enable members to write messages, upload text/video/image/audio files, and link to other useful websites and share them with each other. Some also connect personal blogging services into the community environments (e.g., Mini Homepage in Cyworld, Planet in Daum, and Blog in Naver, etc.), so when a community member can write a message in his/her personal blog that is operated by the same web services as the community, other members can visit his/her personal blog through the community site to see and read new content or leave a short comment on it.

BBS	All communities	
Personal Blogging Service	Cyworld Club	Mini Homepage
	Daum Café	Planet
	Facebook Group	Facebook
	Friendfeed Group	Friendfeed
	Naver	Blog
	Paran	Blog
	Windows Live Groups	Windows Live Profile

[Table 4. Communities with BBS and personal blogging service]

4. Content management system

Digital content may take the form of text, such as documents, multimedia files, such as audio or video files, or any other file type that follows a content lifecycle and requires management. In each community, the content management system is a set of automated processes that administers contents, storage, member lists, listservs, homepage design, and sometimes the community schedule. It is usually used by a community manager or leader to support the following features:

- Import and creation of documents and multimedia material
- Identification of all key users and their roles
- The ability to assign roles and responsibilities to different instances of content categories or types.
- Definition of workflow tasks often coupled with messaging so that content managers are alerted to changes in content.
- The ability to track and manage multiple versions of a single instance of content.
- The ability to arrange the key events of a community into a provided schedule manager or calendar

III. Community Objectives for Language Domain

Effective teachers understand the need to create many opportunities for English learners to practice and use the four language processes: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Since communities basically allow students to interact with each other, they make useful places for extensive practice. Moreover, as LMSs, utilization of the features they offer can support English teaching and learning for specific language domains or in integrated instruction that covers multiple domains.

1. Reading

It is clear that, in order to enhance reading skills, English learners need to be immersed in print, with many opportunities to read appropriate books, stories, and informational text, ideally in their home language as well as in English (Krashen, 2003). There are plenty of resources for reading in

web environment and teachers have used newspaper or web-cartoon sites to provide students with extensive reading opportunities or to find reading materials for lessons. Present learners who are skilled at technology may visit eBook sites and download some English texts for reading through their computers, Personal Media Players (PMPs), or other mobile media devices. To act as an LMS for English reading courses, therefore, a community must be able to facilitate the following objectives:

- Reading texts of various literacy genres and additional reading resources are provided for learners.
- Through various interesting tasks, learners can self-evaluate their reading abilities (e.g. questions, a cloze text or multiple choice tests).

Hence, community tools for content files, eBook access, text chat, and writing boards will be necessary both for providing reading materials and checking students' comprehension. Table 5 shows the analysis of each community and matches tools to requisite features for each community environment in support of reading courses.

C \ F	Content file	Ebook access	Text chat	Writing board
Cyworld Club	BBS	BBS	Chat Room	BBS Mini Homepage (blog)
Daum Café	BBS	BBS RSS Board	Chat Room Touch (messenger)	BBS Planet (blog)
Facebook Group	-	Links	-	Discussion Board The Wall Facebook (blog)
Friendfeed Group	-	BBS Linking Service	-	BBS Friendfeed (blog)
Google Groups	Files / Pages	Files	-	Discussions
Multiply	Media Locker	Media Locker	-	BBS / Reviews / Notes
Nate Club	Jaryosil BBS	Favorite	-	BBS
Naver Café	BBS	BBS RSS Board	Chatting	BBS / Blog
Orkut	-	-	Online Friends	Forum
Paran Club	BBS	BBS	-	BBS / Blog
Wiggio	Folders	Folders	Chat Room	Post a Comment
Windows Live Groups	SkyDrive	SkyDrive	Windows Live Messenger	Discussions Windows Live Profile (blog)
Yahoo! Groups	Files	Files	Yahoo! Messenger	Messages
zShare	zShare	zShare	-	-

* F= feature, C= community

[Table 5. Community analysis for reading courses]

Thus, communities like Cyworld Club, Daum Café, Naver Dafe, and Wiggio are the most useful as LMSs for reading courses because they provide the greatest variety of requisite features, i.e., they offer the most. Windows Live Groups and Yahoo! Groups also provide all features for reading, but

are not as useful because their text chat services are not offered within the community environment. Instead, these services require that community members download their messenger program, Windows Live Messenger and Yahoo! Messenger, in order to use their chat services.

2. Writing

Writing is an output process in language learning. Showing students what constitutes good writing, explaining it clearly, and providing opportunities to practice will result in improving writing (Schmoker, 2001). For writing courses, a community should not only include an opportunity for writing, but also present the content for writing skills. The followings are the community objectives to become LMS in writing instruction:

- A guided composition activity is provided.
- Examples of various literacy genres are provided.
- Writing resources related to the writing topics are provided.
- Users can view writing from peers and instructors

Thus, community tools for content file, BBS, blogging, and text chat will be necessary to practice writing as well as learn composition skills. The analysis of each community for writing courses is represented in Table 6.

C \ F	Content file	BBS	Blogging	Text chat
Cyworld Club	BBS	BBS	Mini Homepage	Chat Room
Daum Café	BBS	BBS	Planet	Chat Room Touch (messenger)
Facebook Group	-	Discussion Board The Wall	Facebook	-
Friendfeed Group	-	BBS	Friendfeed	-
Google Groups	Files / Pages	Discussions	-	-
Multiply	Media Locker	BBS / Reviews / Notes	-	-
Nate Club	Jaryosil BBS	BBS	-	-
Naver Café	BBS	BBS	Blog	Chatting
Orkut	-	Forum	-	Online Friends
Paran Club	BBS	BBS	Blog	-
Wiggio	Folders	Post a Comment	-	Chat Room
Windows Live Groups	SkyDrive	Discussions	Windows Live Profile	Windows Live Messenger
Yahoo! Groups	Files	Messages	-	Yahoo! Messenger
zShare	zShare	-	-	-

* F= feature, C= community

[Table 6. Community analysis for writing courses]

Like the result for reading courses, Cyworld Club, Daum Café, and Naver Café can be selected for best community environment of writing. Windows Live Groups may also be considered as appropriate LMS in writing courses in spite of its external text chat service through the messenger.

3. Listening

Listening input will be acquired efficiently by users when there are multimedia aids (Yang and Chan, 2007). Fortunately, many websites offer lots of video or audio resources for English listening; for example, Youtube and radio websites, such as NPR and BBC World, are popularly used in listening activities. As an LMS for English listening courses, wherein learners practice listening with video or audio resources in a centrally located Internet space, a community must service the following objectives:

- Multimedia-aided listening materials are provided (e.g. videos, audios or pictures).
- Through various interesting tasks related to the content, learners can check their listening comprehension (e.g. questions or multiple choice tests).
- Learners can listen again with a script to understand clearly.

These elements, therefore, should be incorporated into the community environment and conveyed to learners for listening courses: video files, audio files, and texts/text files. As shown in Table 7, in addition to writing texts or messages, BBS on most Korean community sites also provide for file uploading as well as linking to web pages. Conversely, most of the English communities employ a file hosting system rather than a BBS (e.g., SkyDrive in Windows Media Groups, Files in Google Groups and Yahoo! Groups, Folders in Wiggio, and zShare). Video or audio file uploading is possible in most communities through either the BBS or file management system except for Facebook Group, Freindfeed Group, and Orkut. Facebook Group, which only provide file uploading systems only for video under 100 MB and 2 minutes. Even though Facebook Group and Friendfeed Group do not have sufficient file hosting systems, instructors can post links with video, audio, and text resources through their linking systems. Thus, when learners log into these community, they can visit useful websites, e.g., Youtube, for listening via hyperlink.

Taken together, most communities, with the exception of Facebook Group, Friendfeed Group, and Orkut, allow for uploading of video, audio, and text files through their BBS or file management system and, thus, can function as an LMS for listening courses.

C \ F	Video file	Audio file	Texts/text files
Cyworld Club	BBS	BBS	BBS
Daum Café	BBS	BBS	BBS
Facebook Group	Links / Video	Links	Discussion Board / The Wall
Friendfeed Group	Linking service	Linking service	BBS
Google Groups	Files	Files	Discussions / Pages
Multiply	Media Locker	Media Locker	Media Locker BBS / Reviews / Notes
Nate Club	Jaryosil / BBS	Jaryosil / BBS	Jaryosil / BBS
Naver Café	BBS	BBS	BBS
Orkut	Videos	-	Forum
Paran Club	BBS	BBS	BBS
Wiggio	Folders	Folders	Folders / Post a Comment
Windows Live Groups	SkyDrive	SkyDrive	SkyDrive / Discussions
Yahoo! Groups	Files	Files	Files / Messages
zShare	zShare	zShare	zShare

* F= feature, C= community

[Table 7. Community analysis for listening courses]

4. Speaking

Since most EFL learners learn English in their own culture, practice has only been available in the classroom; however, the development of Internet technologies has provided more opportunities to practice oral/aural language skills (e.g., Skype, Podcast, and online messengers, etc.). Before selecting a community for use as an LMS in speaking courses, therefore, the objectives below should be considered:

- Authentic examples of sound links are adequately provided.
- Examples of interactive conversation are provided.
- Learners produce their own authentic speech.
- Learners can communicate with each other in English.
- Opportunities are provided to observe other people's spoken words.
- Feedback is given based on the recorded work of the learners.

Based on these objectives, the most needed features for a speaking course community are audio chat, video chat, video uploading, and audio uploading. The analysis of each community for speaking courses is summarized in Table 8.

C \ F	Audio chat	Video chat	Video upload	Audio upload
Cyworld Club	-	-	BBS	BBS
Daum Café	Daum Touch	Daum Touch	BBS	BBS
Facebook Group	-	-	Video	-
Friendfeed Group	-	-	-	-
Google Groups	-	-	Files	Files
Multiply	-	-	Media Locker	Media Locker
Nate Club	Nateon	Nateon	Jaryosil / BBS	Jaryosil / BBS
Naver Café	-	-	BBS	BBS
Orkut	Online Friends	-	Videos	-
Paran Club	-	-	BBS	BBS
Wiggio	-	-	Folders	Folders
Windows Live Groups	Windows Live Messenger	Windows Live Messenger	SkyDrive	SkyDrive
Yahoo! Groups	Yahoo! Messenger	Yahoo! Messenger	Files	Files
zShare	-	-	zShare	zShare

* F= feature, C= community

[Table 8. Community analysis for speaking courses]

Most communities include tools for video and audio upload, whereas only some communities provide both for video and audio chat services: Daum café, Nate club, Windows Live Groups, and Yahoo! Groups. Since these communities provide tools for all of the features related to speaking courses, they could be implemented as LMSs in speaking instruction even though their audio/video

chat system may be offered through an external messenger program and not a Chat Room within their environments.

VI. Discussions

When using internet communities as LMSs, there could be some factors that might affect learners as well as instructors during their learning process or preparation/implementation of lessons. Among the all possible factors, two major issues that may influence community utilization as LMS are discussed in this chapter: age and teacher preferences

1. Age

Using online community services as LMSs in English teaching and learning may give motivation for younger generations; however, older generations, who are not as familiar with Internet community environments, may have difficulty navigating the site, learning language skills over the Internet, or participating in activities over the community. Thus, instructors must consider the target and their English learning needs before planning to use a community as an LMS in their courses.

Instructors who teach young children should also be careful when using messenger programs for chatting since young children can be easily exposed to noxious spam messages through these programs. Moreover, it is difficult for instructors to control children's use of a messenger system that resides outside the community environment.

2. Teacher Preferences

Even though several communities are suggested as LMSs for each language domain, the choice of community might differ depending on teacher preferences. For example, some instructors may prefer Wiggio to Cyworld Club, Daum Café or Naver Café as an LMS in reading instruction because they use file hosting systems instead of BBSs to upload reading material. If an instructor values a certain feature more than others in his/her English courses, the selected community might not match the ones suggested in this study (and there is nothing wrong with that).

V. Conclusion

Online communities can be employed as Learning Management Systems (LMSs) in EFL contexts because they provide easy tools that do not require technical expertise on the part of the instructor when constructing and maintaining websites. Before addressing their individual potential for educational usage in the EFL context, fourteen popular community sites were chosen and examined to discover their main tools, functions, and options, as well as the unique characteristics provided for both the community manager and members. These community features where then categorized into four areas: file hosting systems, online chat protocols, Bulletin Board Systems (BBSs)/blogs, and content management systems. By matching community features to learning-domain objectives for reading, writing, listening, and speaking, community functions were analyzed for each aspect of language learning to provide recommendations for using each site as an LMS for each instruction in each domain. Before planning to use a community as an LMS, however, instructors should consider their target learners and be cautious about elements that might be harmful to children. In the end, nevertheless, the choice of community may be different depending on teacher preferences.

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Jihyung Hong
ESOL/Bilingual Education
University of Florida
Phone: 352-246-4815
Email: kebii1212@ufl.edu

Biodata
She is a graduate student in ESOL/Bilingual Education at the University of Florida.

Sean. M. Witty
Linguistics
University of Florida
Phone: 352-392-0639
Email: wittysan@ufl.edu

Biodata
He is a Ph. D. student in Linguistics at the University of Florida.

Out-of-classroom Writing in English of Korean Students

Younghwa Lee (Sun Moon University)

I. Introduction

Literacies are situated. All uses of written language can be seen as located in particular times and places. Equally, all literate activity is indicative of broader social practices (Barton, Hamilton, & Ivanic, 2000). Some existing work in EFL writing area approaches student writing from an essentially 'skill-based' perspective (Camps, 2000; Tarnopolsky, 2000). The qualities of 'good writing' are assumed to be self-evident, and largely a matter of learning and mastering universal rules of grammar usage and text organization. Explanations for students who experience problems with writing tend to locate the problem as a deficit in the student rather than question of the 'ground rules' of writing in a particular context. This study considers what it means to take a contrasting approach of the 'skill-based' one and to address the relationship between learning and writing in English in daily life in the Korea EFL context. This is concerned with making the links between literacies in a specific context and broader social structuring. By examining the fine detail of Korean university students' English writing practices, it tries to contribute to understand the ways in which the practices of writing are part of broader social processes. This qualitative study aims at investigating EFL Korean students' writing practices carried out outside classrooms, and the relationship between their out-of-classroom writing and the assignments for an English composition course at a university in Korea.

II. Method

Participants The participants in this study were forty students in an English composition classroom at a university in Korea. Their age and writing proficiency varied from twenty to thirty and from low to advanced levels. Out of the forty, six students were interviewed to explore their writing practices in their day-to-day lives in more detail.

Settings The physical setting was clear enough to give a full description of where students' writing practices took place. In some cases the immediate setting may not be clear although the domain of activity was very obvious (e.g. taking memos or notes for example). Sometimes the physical setting may be outside the classroom, while the domain of the writing practice is not (e.g. getting ideas for school assignments in daily experience)

Domain of out-of-classroom writing The forty students were asked to fill out a questionnaire about where, when, and how they write or use English outside their classroom with the reason why. They were also asked how the out-of-classroom writing practices could relate to their school assignments with their writing samples through interviews.

III. Results and Discussion

1. Students' out-of-classroom writing practices

The students used a variety of everyday writing in English: memos and notes; internet chatting or text messages; e-mails; diaries; letters; poems; and essays. Out of these practices, memos/notes, internet chatting/ text messages, and e-mails accounted for 70% of the all examples, showing 30%, 20%, and 20%, respectively. This indicates that the students have their own "micro purposes" (Clark & Ivanic, 1997, p. 119; Lee Younghwa, 2005, p. 270) for which they tried to keep in mind their daily schedule (memos/notes) and to communicate with others (internet chatting/ text messages/ e-mails). Private spaces such as home and dormitories were preferred by most students, 80%, to establish their practices of writing in English. This finding implies that one of the best ways for teachers to increase their understanding of students' out-of-classroom writing practices is to examine students' everyday practices of English writing around students' usage environment.

2. Interface between out-of-classroom practices and classroom assignments

The students used a variety of ways to get ideas for their university assignments: experience in daily life; books/newspaper; discussion with others, internet; TV/movies; and dictionaries. This finding indicates that the students used all kinds of authentic materials around them in their daily lives regardless of the form and nature of the resources to complete their assignments. Ninety percent of students in the study benefited from their out-of-classroom practices to complete their assignments in a variety of ways: using vocabulary, phrases and sentences; getting ideas; and ensuring grammar. The students thought that the content and vocabulary, phrases, and sentences in their everyday writing activities were related to their university assignments, and this enabled them to get useful ideas for the tasks. Some students practiced English grammar through their daily writing activities such as e-mails and letters.

IV. Conclusion

Students writing activities out of classroom are one of language study and practices entailing the maintenance of university values and academic discourse. That is, the students made their own discourses and interactions in the given context in which people are communicating with the social and cultural climate within which the communication takes place. This study enables us to gain new insights into the role of out-of-classroom writing in English education in Korea.

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Younghwa Lee
Department of English
Sun Moon University
Phone: 88-41-530-2432
Email: yhee831@sunmoon.ac.kr

Biodata

Dr. Younghwa Lee teaches in the Department of English at Sun Moon University, Republic of Korea. She obtained her Ph.D. from Lancaster University, UK. Her research interests lie in the EFL writing, which focuses on the theory of social practices and classroom language teaching and learning from socio-cultural perspectives. She is currently working on writing practices and writer identity.

Enhancing EFL Lesarner's Reading Comprehension through the CoSM Instruction

Pi-Ching Chen (Chang Jung Christian University, Taiwan)
Pin-Fen Chen (Kaohsiung Municipal Nanzih Primary School)

I. Introduction

Diverse teaching modes and learning styles as well as innovative instructional facilities for language learning are proliferating and continuously changing due to the rapid development of computer technology. The effects of diverse learning materials should be investigated for instructors to understand their benefits and drawbacks. Multimedia learning materials not only provide an environment for exposing to audio-and-visual language input but also arouse learners' motivation. Accordingly, it is significant for language instructors to understand learners' reaction to multimedia materials as accessing learners to multimedia materials, which will be of help to understand language learning processes in the digital era.

Although the value of learning languages in the multimedia context cannot be underestimated, learning with digital materials and IT equipments does not guarantee an ideal method or setting for language learning. There still might be some defects for such a modern learning means. For instance, learners may have wandering attention due to the diversity of the information from the multimedia materials. Providing learning support for learners in the multimedia context can not only help learners' concentration but also offer learners opportunity for access learning strategies. The use of story grammar instruction has been proven to be an effective for reading comprehension and the retention of the reading texts. By guiding students to understand text structures, students' cognitions and their literacy develop. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of animated picture books and the cooperative story mapping instruction (CoSM) on EFL young learners' vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension and creative story writing, which attempts to propose an instructional model of applying a multimedia material into traditional EFL classrooms.

II. Literature Review

With the advent of computer technology, multimedia technology makes multi-sense inputs possible. Information integrated into instruction has been emphasized and carried out in elementary education in Taiwan recent years. Thus, studies involving electronic format of picture books emerged abundantly (Chen, 2005; De Jong & Bus, 2004; Liou, 2006; Wang, 2007). Most IT-based medium of English picture books facilitated learners' listening, speaking, reading and writing in both L1 and L2 learning. Accordingly, several publishers begin bringing in electronic version of famous awarded picture books in order to meet this need. Moreover, multimedia as a vehicle for enhancing vocabulary acquisition is also a promising application for foreign language teachers (Cutrim Schmid, 2008). Through the interaction of sound, words and the image of the objects or context, L2 learners may memorize vocabulary and the learnt text better. Thus, this study is expected to investigate the application of the innovative material, animated picture books, into the English learning classroom.

Paivio's (1986) dual coding theory and Mayer's (1997) generative theory of multimedia learning are regarded as the two of the theories advocating learning through multimedia. Information that human received from external world was decoded as verbal and nonverbal representations (Paivio, 1986). Verbal and visual inputs were both significant to learners based on the dual coding theory. Therefore, exposing learners to both verbal and visual inputs as learning materials might enhance learners' learning processes.

Rumelhart (1975) has proposed that the story grammar of a story contains a setting, a theme, episodes and a resolution. Settings include characters, time, and place. A theme is "an initiating event that causes the main character to react and form a goal or face a problem" (Hou, 2006, p. 31). Episodes refer to the events that the main character encounter, which are that he or she needs to achieve the goal or solve the problem in the story. A resolution is the solution of the events or problems, which is the ending of the story. With these elements, a story can be well-formed. Since the

elements can be one of the schema underlying story readers, story readers expect and search for those elements to reason the complete plot of the story while reading. Regarding to English reading comprehension, Chang's (2005) study revealed that the students in the group of story scheme teaching outperformed the group in traditional narrated teaching on the reading comprehension tests. Moreover, the students with high or low English proficiency benefited from the story scheme instruction. The strategy of story grammar and story mapping could be an appropriate language support (Sun & Dong, 2004) for language learners.

Cooperative learning had been proven effective in both L1 and L2 education on enhancing learners' academic achievement, language acquisition, and social development (Dale, 1994; McShane, 2005; Salataci & Akyel, 2002). In terms of elementary school students, Lee (2003) found that the cooperative strategy reading was effective on promoting the students' English reading comprehension, but not for the vocabulary acquisition. However, the student' attitudes toward English learning and reading were enhanced as well as the students were found becoming more creative and critical on using reading strategies. Consequently, cooperative learning had positive influence in reading programs on the elementary and secondary school students' English learning attitudes.

III. Method

This study was conducted in a public elementary school in southern Taiwan. The instructor, also the researcher, participating in the study had been teaching in the elementary school for more than three years. A total of 90 fifth-grade elementary school students from three intact classes participated in this study. All of them were native speakers of Mandarin Chinese or Southern Min. The students took this reading-to-writing integrated instruction as a supplementary of the school English curriculum plan. In order to implement effective cooperative learning, heterogeneous grouping was carried out in this study. The instructor grouped the students into small groups of five to six members based on the average of their academic English grades in the past semester.

Five instruments for data collection were adopted to achieve the study purposes, including: (a) four animated picture books for reading materials, (b) a 16-item questionnaire investigating students' attitudes toward learning English and perceptions on their English competence (Q-AP), (c) a worksheet for group discussion about each story, (d) a 20-item questionnaire probing into the students responses to the proposed experimental instruction and the learning materials (Q-CoSM), and (e) the six tests of vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension for the four picture books, four quizzes for the four stories, one immediate test, and the other two-week delayed-recall test.

To probe whether the CoSM instruction would enhance students' attitudes of learning English and students' perceptions on their own English competence, all the students answered the Q-AP both before and after the CoSM instruction. Next, for conducting an effective cooperative learning, the instructor first heterogeneously grouped the students into small groups of five to six members based on the average of their academic English grades in the past year. After the instructor introduced the students the concepts of the story elements, students read the stories with multimedia animation and cooperatively completed the designed story map worksheets. Then, the teacher led a whole-class discussion for identifying story elements. After reading activities of the four stories, students cooperatively created a new story based on story elements. Meanwhile, the students were encouraged to utilize the target words that they learned in the read stories. After the implementation of the four stories and one piece of story writing, the Q-CoSM was administered to understand students' attitudes toward animated picture books, the whole instruction, the English story writing activities, and the cooperative group discussion. At last, all the data including the results of the tests and the questionnaires were collected and analyzed.

IV. Results and Discussion

The present study aims to examine the effects of animated picture books combined with the cooperative story mapping (CoSM) instruction on EFL young learners' vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. The major findings are that the students had progressed on the target words and their reading comprehension when they were immerged in the multimedia reading program. It

was consistent with what Hou (2006) argued. Textual plus pictorial input was effective in fostering L2 learners' literacy in terms of vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. However, the outcome of the delayed-recall test revealed that the students forgot the learned target words and the story plots to some degree. In other words, it seemed that once students were provided opportunities of being exposed in the proposed instruction, their English vocabulary and reading comprehension would be improved.

Moreover, different learning situations for the high-EPL and low-EPL groups with different characteristics were found. It indicated that learners who possessed varied learning styles benefited different components from such an integration of multimedia materials into reading strategy instruction. It seemed that low-EPL students needed more exposure to such an instruction to consolidate their learning and ensure the learning input turned to be intake in the long-term memory.

Further, there were attitudinal changes before and after the proposed intervention on both two dimensions in the Q-AP. In conclusion, students improved their attitudes toward English learning and their self-examination of English competence after animated picture books combined with the CoSM instruction. The finding positively responded to De Jong and Bus's (2004) suggestion for future research that whether the animations might lead to vocabulary acquisition and more interest in reading.

Fourthly, according to the results of the Q-CoSM, the students' responses were positive to the CoSM instruction. The students held the most positive attitudes toward animated picture books and then came the cooperative group discussion, the whole proposed instruction but the least toward the English story writing activities. The results of students' attitudes toward animated picture books corresponded to Liou's (2006) and Wang's (2007) findings that students' motivation and reading comprehension of English could be facilitated by using e-picture books and animations. The outcome was also in line with Chen's (2005) study on students' positive responses to the integration of IT into English picture books intervention. Furthermore, participants' preference for the animated picture books could result in that they embraced the offer of such multimedia materials. Once learners noticed, liked and were further willing to learn from the multimedia learning materials, they would benefit from the multimedia learning context which supported Mayer's (1997) advocating multimedia learning in that multimedia instruction which comprised pictorial and text information assisted learners' construction of new knowledge.

V. Conclusions

The pedagogical implications of this study are to draw the attention to the effects of the multimedia reading material, story grammar instruction, and cooperative learning on the development of L2 vocabulary and reading comprehension for EFL elementary students and to provide recommendations of implementing multimedia materials and the teaching method in English class. Yet, there are still limitations on the characteristics of the participants, the design of the research, the measurement of prior vocabulary knowledge, and the limited time span of the writing treatment in this study. First, one of the limitations of this study is the constitution of the participants. The participants of this study are all from the same elementary school and most of them have similar social backgrounds. Thus, the results of the study may not be able to be generalized to all other elementary school students in Taiwan. The study may be regarded as a baseline for other researchers and practitioners who are interested in the related research fields to compare the outcome between various age-group participants from different backgrounds in future research. Another limitation was the time span of the writing treatment. Due to the limited time span, the students can only be instructed and encouraged to create one story according to the story elements and without emphasizing grammar accuracy. From the instructor's observation of the classroom activities, although the majority of students are able to complete creative writing of stories, they still potentially worry about the vocabulary and grammar correction.

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Pi-Ching Chen
Department of International Business
Chang Jung Christian University
Phone: 886-6-2785123 ext. 2172
Email: ydpc@mail.cjcu.edu.tw

Biodata

Pi-Ching Chen, Associate Professor of English, teaches English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at Chang Jung Christian University in Taiwan. She is also an Adjunct Associate Professor of National Cheng Kung University (NCKU). Her major research interests are Teaching Methodology and ESP. She has published 6 books, 20 academic papers, and more than 60 conference papers. The co-author, *Pin-Fen Chen*, is an English teacher at Kaohsiung Municipal Nanzih Primary School in Southern Taiwan. She earned her MA degree from NCKU in January 2009.

Discerning the Characteristics of the Professional Development-Inclined NEST

David Shaffer (Chosun University)

I. Introduction

Native English speakers are currently filling teaching positions in large numbers in Korea at language schools of all types – from the private young-learner language school program to the university language center program and the large corporation employee business English program. A commonly occurring situation is that very often there is no formal, predetermined set of criteria for the selection process. Native-speaker teaching positions are often filled based heavily on the applicants' nationality and variety of English spoken, physical appearance, and age. Though employers would like their NEST (native English-speaking teacher) instructors to pursue professional development during their period of employment, it is often the case that they do not. For universities, and other employers as well, to improve the quality of their native speaker faculties, they need to be able to identify and select personnel who are more inclined toward professional development.

The goal of this research to obtain insight into why some native-speaker instructors engage in professional development while others do not. Data on university instructors was compiled and analyzed. This included data collected from case studies on two participants who are very similar in many way but are perceived as very different with respect to professional development. The results lead to the creation of a set of characteristics that may be indicative of NESTs who are inclined to stay in the same position and improve themselves professionally while they are there.

II. Study 1

Method

In this study, the participants consisted of forty-one native-speaker English instructors working in two university programs in the Gwangju area. Through administrative chanels, data was collected on socially based professional development activities (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001). There included membership in ELT professional societies, conference, symposia, and workshop attendance; ELT presentations made at in-house and at other events, and teacher team research, as well as colleague assistance and administrative help. Education-based professional development included pursuing graduate certificates and advanced academic degrees. Personal data collected were age, gender, and nationality. The average age of the participants was 36 years old, with one participant at that age, 24 participants below that age, and 16 above. By gender, 9 (22%) of the participants were female and 32 (78%) were male.

Results

The participants were divided into those to which at least one of the above items of professional development applied and those to which none of the items applied. It was found that 13 (32%) of the 41 participants had participated in or were participating in at least one form of professional development during their period of employment. The other 28 (68%) had not participated in any form of professional development during their employment period.

Nationality of the participants was determined and professional development numbers and percentages were calculated according to nationality (Table 1).

Table 1. Participants Engaging in Professional Development by Nationality

Nationality	USA	Canada	UK	Others	All
Total	14 (34%)	13 (32%)	7 (17%)	7 (17%)	41 (100%)
+ Pro Dev	4 (29%)	5 (38%)	2 (29%)	2 (29%)	13 (32%)
- Pro Dev	10 (71%)	8 (62%)	5 (71%)	5 (71%)	28 (68%)

The number of NESTs with American nationality was highest, closely followed by Canadians, then by Britons. The number of NESTs with Australian (2), New Zealand (2), Ireland (2), and South African (1) nationality was so small that they were grouped as "Other." The tendency toward professional development was slightly below the group average (32%) for the nationality categories USA, UK, and Others, while is was slightly above average for the nationality category Canada.

In investigating age, it was found that the average was 36 and that 25 (61%) of the participants were in their 30s. The next highest age group was the 20s with 8 (20%) participants. This was followed by the highest age groups (40s and 50s or more) with a combined total of 20% of the total group (Table 2).

Table 2. Participants Engaging in Professional Development by Age Group

Age Group	20s	30s	40s	50 or more	All
Total	8 (20%)	25 (61%)	4 (10%)	4 (10%)	41 (100%)
+ Pro Dev	1 (13%)	7 (28%)	3 (75%)	2 (50%)	13 (32%)
- Pro Dev	7 (87%)	18 (72%)	1 (25%)	2 (50%)	28 (68%)

The age groups with the highest percentage of members of that age group doing professional development while at their present place of work were the 40s and the 50s or more age groups. Conversely, The age groups with the lowest percentages of their members doing professional development were the 20s (87%) and the 30s (72%).

Professional development as a function of gender was also examined. It was found that 34% of the 32 male NESTs and 22% of the 9 female NESTs were involved in professional development of some sort (Table 3).

Table 3. Participants Engaging in Professional Development by Gender

Gender	Male	Female	All
Total	32 (78%)	9 (22%)	41 (100%)
+ Pro Dev	11 (34%)	2 (22%)	13 (32%)
- Pro Dev	21 (66%)	7 (78%)	28 (68%)

III. Study 2

Method

For detailed insight into individual motivation for professional development a case study of two NESTs was undertaken. While various aspects of these two individuals were similar their concern for personal development, as perceived by this researcher, varied greatly. Participant 1, who we will call "Peewon," was a male NEST in his late 30s. He has been teaching for approximately nine years in Korea, the last eight years at a single university. He is married with two children, and is perceived of not being particularly concerned with pursuing professional development. Participant 2, "Peetu," was a male NEST also is his late 30s. He has been teaching ten years on Korea, approximately eight of which have been at the same university as Peewon. Peetu is married with no children and is perceived as pursuing professional development.

Results

The two participants were interviewed individually and asked a series of identical questions concerning teaching and professional development. They were also given ten statements and asked to rate them from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Peewon revealed that his main reasons for being a teacher were professional fulfillment, job security, and financial benefits, in that order. Peetu told the interviewer that his main reason for being in the profession was his love of teaching, followed by good working hours and holidays, and good pay with job security. Peewon's main professional development activities were learning from teaching mistakes, better use of teaching materials, and

better understanding of student needs. Peetu's main activities were Internet and book research/study, obtaining a TESOL certificate, and discussions with colleagues on solving problems.

The professional development achievements that Peewon is most proud of are better ability to communicate with the students and Korean language skills. Peetu is most proud of completing both a TESOL certificate program and obtaining a master's degree in English literature. The reasons Peewon gave for not doing more professional development that he does are family-related financial constraints and time constraints. He also stated that in the past he thought of teaching as a temporary occupation. Peetu does not do more than he does because of the time and money requirements of education.

The participants were also asked how much they agreed with a set of statements. They indicated that they strongly agreed (5), somewhat agreed (4), were not sure (3), somewhat disagreed, or strongly disagreed. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Degree of Agreement with Statements on Professional Development

Statement	Peewon	Peetu
1. Professional development (PD) is important.	5	5
2. I do normal and sufficient PD.	5	3
3. Financial inducement for PD is sufficient.	5	4
4. PD is realistically planned over time at my institution.	4	1
5. PD activities are reasonably supported at my institution.	4	2
6. There is sufficient negotiation on teacher needs and school needs.	3	1
7. There are sufficient opportunities for trying out new practices.	4	4
8. Trust between my colleagues and me is important for PD.	4	3
9. Mutuality and reciprocity with my colleagues is important for PD.	4	3
10. Having the choice to develop is important to my PD.	5	4

IV. Discussion

Study 1

The results of Study 1 reveal that the tertiary institution NESTs in this study most involved in professional development are Canadians males in their 40s. What the results do not reveal is why the percentage of those pursuing professional development (32%) is not higher than it is. Insight into this may be found in Andy Curtis' views on the meaning of professional development (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001). For Curtis, trust is a very important issue concerned with personal development. If one does not trust the motives of their senior managers, then professional development is not likely to occur. For a NEST living in a foreign country and working in an unfamiliar environment with administrators with a different mindset, different managerial techniques, different values, and speaking a different language, trust may be very difficult to develop.

A second point that is very important to Curtis is mutuality or reciprocity: "As we have been collaborating on this book, David and Kathi haven't considered my rank or seniority. Instead they see what I can contribute. Making those contributions, and responding to theirs, has been a major part of my own professional development" (p. 5). Korean society is a strongly hierarchical one, with little concern for mutuality and reciprocity. Without experiencing this sense of reciprocity and mutuality that the NEST is so used to in their home culture, little professional development is likely to be initiated.

An increase is salary or prestige, or the possibility of a promotion, is another important reason for people to engage in personal development. Curtis also emphasizes the importance of choice as an element in teacher development. Development only takes place if one chooses for it to. Therefore, if there is a lack of trust in the workplace, if there is no sense of mutuality or reciprocity with the people one works with, and if there is little chance of upward mobility resulting from professional development, there is little chance that one will choose to pursue professional development.

Study 2

The results of Study 2 reveal that both participants are in the teaching profession for the same reasons, but Peetu expressed a more ardent love of teaching. Peewon's PD activities are simple, individual classroom activities, gained from experience. Peetu, however, indicates study, research and discussions with colleagues were his main PD activities. Both Peewon and Peetu indicate that time and financial constraints are the main reasons for not doing a higher level of PD. Peewon sees his main PD achievements as a better understanding of Korean and his students, and the ability to prepare better lessons – the last two arising mainly out of general teaching experience. Peetu is most proud of the additional education he has received. Peetu's PD accomplishments are more difficult to obtain than Peewon's, but both Peewon and Peetu feel strongly about the importance of PD, as shown by their responses to Statement 1 (S1). However, Peewon thinks higher of his PD attainment (S2). Richards and Farrell (2005) offer S4-S7 as being necessary for PD. Peewon sees his school as providing a better environment for PD (S4, S5, S7) and a better balance between teacher and school needs. On the PD points that are important to Andy Curtis (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001), Peewon considers them more important than does Peetu.

Though Peewon's PD efforts and accomplishments have been observed to be considerably less than those of Peetu, Peewon feels more satisfied with the PD that he has received and with his school's support of PD. Two of Gebhard's factors for teacher self-development seem to be stronger in Peetu than in Peewon: exploration for exploration's sake and an ongoing commitment.

V. Conclusion

This study suggests that male Canadians in their 40s may be the NESTs who will devote the most energy toward professional development during their employment in a tertiary education institution. Curtis' elements of trust, mutuality and reciprocity, opportunity for advancement, and choice seem to play an important role in professional development for some than for others. However, it does appear that the higher one estimates their own PD to be, the less likely they are to pursue PD. A more extensive qualitative study of these elements would be desirable to shed further light on the professional development characteristics of NESTs in Korean tertiary education work situations.

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Chosun University
College of Foreign Languages
English Language Department
375 Seoseok-dong, Dong-gu
Gwangju 501-759

Office: 062-230-6917
Cell: 010-5068-9179
Email: disin@chosun.ac.kr

Biodata

David E. Shaffer (PhD Linguistics, Grad TESOL Cert) has been a long-term educator in Korea. In addition to teaching graduate and undergraduate courses in the English Language Department, he is Foreign Language Programs Director and TESOL Program Director at Chosun University. He has years of experience as a teacher trainer and materials developer. Dr. Shaffer's main academic interests include incorporating cognitive linguistic constructs into more effective teaching techniques. He is a member of a variety of ELT and linguistics associations, and currently serves on the boards of Asia TEFL, Korea TESOL, and GETA.

In-Service Teacher Development: Theory and Practice

David Hayes (Brock University, Canada)

Continuing professional development (CPD) is recognised by education authorities as being central to any dynamic, effective education system, responsive to rapid changes in an increasingly globalised world. CPD is particularly important for primary school teachers of

English at a time when ministries of education seem to be placing greater and greater emphasis on an early start to the teaching of English as well as considering the introduction of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). However, the extent to which rhetoric is matched by reality is open to question. Drawing on a British Council 'Primary Innovations Project' study of a key element of CPD policy and practice - formal in-service teacher development (INSET) – in Korea, this paper examines current policies on INSET and primary English teachers' experience of the policies as they are practised. The paper attempts to determine whether rhetoric is matched by reality and what needs to be changed in policy and/or practice in Korea to ensure not only that the two elements are in alignment but that the CPD needs of primary English language teachers are met. The particular challenges brought about by CLIL are also addressed.

Biodata

David Hayes is currently Graduate Program Director in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Brock University, Canada. He has extensive experience of teaching and teacher/trainer development programmes in Malaysia, Nigeria, Senegal, Sri Lanka and Thailand; and has also taught at the Universities of Leeds and York in the United Kingdom. His main professional interests are in in-service teacher development, systemic educational change and the lives and careers of non-native speaking English teachers in state education systems. His most recent publications appear in the journals *Language Teaching Research, System* and *RELC Journal*.

e-mail: dhayes@brocku.ca

Content-based Instruction: A Model of Teacher Training Program

Longxing Wei (Montclair State University)

I. Introduction

This paper presents a promising model of international teacher training program for content-based instructors in contexts of English as a Foreign Language or English for Special Purposes. To meet real interests and needs of content-based instructors of various disciplines in humanities and social sciences and in natural and applied sciences, the Global Education Center at Montclair State University has designed and promoted a customized professional training program for university faculty in China and other countries. It also explains some advantages and necessity of such a program, presents the specially designed courses, reports on the current results, discusses the aspects of the program that need modification and improvement, and explores the potential of the program to be an international model.

II. Content-based Teaching as a Pedagogical Approach

"Content-based teaching," also called "content-centered instruction," is a model of integrated-skills approach to language teaching, which integrates the learning of some specific subject-matter content with the learning of a second/foreign language (Echevarria & Graves, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). More specifically, it refers to the concurrent study of language and subject material, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material (Brinton, Snow, & Wescher, 1989; Snow & Brinton, 1997; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). Such an approach contrasts sharply with many traditional practices in which language skills are taught virtually in isolation from substantive informational content of interest and relevance to the learner. In content-based classrooms, students are pointed toward matters of intrinsic concern with language taking on its appropriate role as a vehicle for accomplishing a set of content goals.

III. Advantages of Content-based Teaching

In a content-based classroom, students can be intrinsically motivated and empowered because they are pointed beyond transient extrinsic factors, like grades and tests, to their own competence and autonomy as intelligent individuals capable of actually doing something with their new language. Content-based teaching allows learners to acquire knowledge and skills that transcend all the bits and pieces of language that may occupy hours and days of analyzing in a traditional language classroom. Research on second language acquisition indicates that ultimate strength of learning is pointed toward practical non-language goals. On the one hand, learners become focused on very useful, practical objectives as the subject matter is perceived to be relevant to long term goals, rather than the language itself. On the other hand, learners learn the language through its actual use in a particular subject matter area. Thus, language learning and content learning rely on each other and promote each other. The strength of meaningful learning as opposed to rote learning subsumes new information into existing structures and memory systems, and the resulting associative links create stronger retention.

IV. Challenges of Content-based Teaching

English language programs in which attention to subject matter is primary present some challenges to content-based teachers. First, content-based teachers have to view their teaching from an entirely different perspective because their selection and sequencing of language items are controlled by the subject matter rather than the language itself. They are first and foremost teaching biology or geography or history or culture, and secondarily they are teaching the language. Thus, content-based teachers may have to have expertise in both areas. Second, there is a demand for a whole new genre of

textbooks and other materials. Such textbooks or materials must be both subject matter and special language oriented for the content-based language teaching purposes. Third, content-based instruction requires or allows for the complete integration of language skills. This is because as a content-based teacher plans a lesson around a particular sub-topic of his/her subject-matter area. His/her task becomes one of how best to present that topic or concept or principle. In a content-based lesson it would be difficult not to involve most essential language skills as the teacher needs to get students engaged in reading, discussing, solving problems, analyzing data, writing opinions, summaries or reports. Fourth, in team-teaching models of content-based teaching, a subject-matter teacher and a language teacher link their courses and curriculum so that teach complements the other. Such a model demands the ability of language teachers to teach the concepts and skills of various subject matters.

V. Specially Designed Training Courses

Depending on the interests and needs of a particular university faculty, the following courses can be selected and adapted, and other courses can be designed. The program duration is 3-6 weeks.

A. ***Content-based Methodology and Teaching Workshop*** familiarizes trainees with a variety of teaching strategies suitable for use in university classrooms and provides opportunities for them to practice these strategies in class, in small- and large-group settings. In addition, the course examines authentic English-language teaching materials in various subject areas and discusses some ways to adapt such materials for non-native speakers of English.

B. ***Essential English for Content-based Instructors*** improves and strengthens trainees' spoken English for classroom purposes and conversations. It develops speaking techniques for teaching content-based materials in English, introduces student-centered discussion strategies and practices a variety of spoken English activities to enhance content-based learning.

C. ***Advanced English Writing Skills for Content-based Instructors in the Humanities, Business and the Social Sciences*** reviews essential composition skills with special attention to common sentence and paragraph problem and introduces several types of writing, such as summaries, abstracts, research proposals and grant proposals. Representative English writing samples for presentation at professional conferences or publication in professional journals are selected as readings to familiarize trainees with requirements and formats of writing in the disciplines of the humanities, business and the social sciences.

D. ***Advanced English Writing Skills for Content-based Instructors in the Natural and Applied Sciences*** reviews essential composition skills with special attention to abstracts, literature surveys, research reports, progress reports, final reports, research proposals and grant proposals. Representative English samples for presentation at professional conferences or publication in professional journals are selected as readings to familiarize trainees with particular requirements, formats and styles of documentation in the natural and applied sciences.

E. ***Teaching in English: Methodology for University Faculty*** examines and analyzes different models of lesson design and classroom strategies suitable for use with university students. There are opportunities for general discussion as well as more focused sessions involving hands on practice. Topics will include: understanding by design, deep Learning, Hunter lesson design, and ways of checking comprehension and demonstrating understanding.

F. ***Strategies for the Student-centered Classroom*** discusses how to shift from a teacher-focused to a student-centered classroom in which learning happens in positive and productive ways. Strategies to be discussed and practiced include: using small group discussions to foster deep-thinking, incorporating students' writing into class discussions, preparing for student-led discussions in the large group, responding to student questions in class, and reaching students through interactive technology.

VI. Program Promotion

This teacher training program was initially offered to East China Normal University and was later

promoted and offered to several other universities in China and other countries.

Year	Participating universities	S#	Faculty disciplines	Courses
2005	East China Normal University	27	H & S Sciences; A & N Sciences	A, B, C
2007	East China Normal University	25	H & S Sciences; A & N Sciences	A, B, C, D
2007	Shanghai Normal University	34	H & S Sciences	A, B, C
2008	Universidad del Valle de Atemajac	18	H & S Sciences; A & N Sciences	B, C
2009	East China Normal University	25	H & S Sciences; A & N Sciences	A, B, C, D
2009	Shanghai Normal University	20	H & S Sciences; A & N Sciences	B, C
2009	Beijing Jiaotong University	25	A & N Sciences	A, B, D
2009	Karl Franzens University Graz	20	H & S Sciences; A & N Sciences	E, F
2009	Universidad del Valle de Atemajac	25	H & S Sciences; A & N Sciences	A, B, C

Note: S#: number of students enrolled in the program; H: Humanities; S: Social; N: Natural; A: Applied; A/B/C/D/E/F: courses offered.

VII. Program Strength, Improvement and Potential

The promising strength of the program is that it has offered the courses specially designed to meet real interests and needs of content-based instructors who need not only improvement and strengthening in essential English language skills but also particular methodology. Though it will take a long time and continued practice for content-based instructors to be highly proficient in English and effective in teaching, this intensive training program has helped them understand the essential principles and goals of content-based instruction and develop their self-confidence in content-based teaching strategies. To make this program more effective, the course materials need to be more carefully selected or written to meet the real needs of instructors from various disciplines. Also, content-based language teaching through technology needs to be designed into the program. With the improvement and necessary modification based on the results of the previous programs and feedback from their participants, this program can be made more relevant to the interests and needs of content-based faculty and be developed into an international model of teacher training program.

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Longxing Wei
Linguistics Department
Montclair State University
Phone: 973-655-7501
Email: weil@mail.montclair.edu

Biodata
Longxing Wei is Associate Professor of Linguistics and Director of Graduate Program in Applied Linguistics. His major publications are in Bilingualism, Second Language Acquisition, Cognitive Linguistics, and Psycholinguistics.

A Content-Based Teacher Training Program: A Case Study of a High School English Teacher's Experience

Eun-Ju Kim (Chung-Ang University)

I. Introduction

When Teaching English through English (TETE) policy was announced by the Ministry of Education of Korea in 2001, there were both positive and negative reactions to it. Specifically, Some expressed the concerns about teachers' limited oral proficiency (Kim S., 2002) while others reported that they had increased their use of classroom English since the policy was announced (Kim Y., 2002). As the response to these concerns, Korean government has made efforts to improve Korean English teachers' overall English proficiency and their teaching skills as well through the diverse teacher education programs. This case study is to understand how a Korean high school English teacher experiences an intensive English teacher education program where content-based instruction was adopted as a main instructional framework. Using the diary written by the participating teacher for 6 months as a primary source, the study intends to see how the participant teacher's learning as professional development has been constructed in content-based English teacher education program.

II. Literature Review

1. Content-Based Instruction

The primary tenet of content –based instruction (CBI) is to "use language by using it" while learning a subject matter (Stryker & Lou Leaver, 1997, p.3). Where as a weaker form of CBI pay more attention to improving learners' "communicative proficiency" (Wesche & Skehan, p.222), a stronger version of CBI focuses more on learners' mastering of the subject matter than their language proficiency. Not only the learners master subject matters and language but also they come to have positive attitude toward learning as a result of CBI experience. CBI approaches are also believed to prepare learners for the real life after they finish the program (Snow, 1998).

When these findings are applied to content-based English language teacher education program, as is the case of this study, the participating teachers are supposed to develop their language proficiency through content-based classes and subject matter being taught as well. Also, this content-based English language teacher education program is expected to help teachers to prepare for the better instruction when they return to schools. In a word, the content-based English language teacher education program should contribute to improving language teachers' language and their professional development.

2. Teacher Learning as Professional Development

The early language teacher education programs were constructed around the information-transmission perspective (Freeman, 2002). The primary focus of the program was to provide information or knowledge which teachers are believed to need for their classroom teaching practice. Subsequently, the information and knowledge were delivered to the teachers, and they were expected to reproduce what they had learned in the programs into their teaching practice. From this perspective which is based on behaviorism, language teachers have some analogy with technicians who exactly duplicate what they are trained into their practice.

However, increasing number of studies have been made to change this technician view of teachers. Among them, Jonson and Golombek (2003) argue that teacher learning should be understood as "a dialogic process of transformation of self and activity rather than simply the replacement of skills" (p.731). What they emphasize here is that teachers are in fact active in their learning by mediating what they learn and what they teach within their unique contexts. According to them, therefore, if an English teacher education program expects language teachers to photocopy their knowledge acquired

from the teacher education program in their real practice, the program has the naïve concept of teacher learning and their professional development. This claim also urges to see an individual teacher's learning carefully within their own contexts because each teacher has their own different stories of teaching and learning. In this sense, the study of teacher's professional development through teachers learning should start from listening to what teachers talk about their learning and teaching and how they mediate them within their unique teaching contexts.

III. Method

1. Participant

Jung-Mi, the participant of this study, is a female high school English teacher with 17 year teaching experience[2]. She has been teaching English at middle schools, college-bound high schools, and information industry high schools. At the time of data collection, she was teaching at a high school in a suburban city of Seoul. Jung-Mi participated in several short-term English teacher education programs, but this was her first long-term English teacher education program.

2. Data

The primary data for this class include 44 entries of Jung-Mi's diary written during 6 months of her participation in the program. For the content of the diary, she was asked to share what she learned or felt while she was in the program. Three time classroom observations were also conducted as a way to observe Jung-Mi's classroom participations. A follow-up interview was also conducted a month after Jung-Mi returned to her school to teach. During the interview, the researcher asked the clarification questions regarding the contents of the diary as a member check (Maxwell, 19996), and other questions emerging from the diary reading and class observations. Finally, grounded content analysis (Spradley & McCurdy, 1989) was adopted for analyzing data.

IV. Finding

Since Jung-Mi had wanted to participate in the present program for a long time, she was generally motivated during the program. She actively participated in the classroom activities by leading some group or pair activities (classroom observation I & III). By the end of the program, Jung-Mi hoped to see her to be a more confident language teacher with more proficient language ability (the 1st entry of diary). To do this, Jung-Mi knew the specific areas she wanted to improve through this program;

> "이번 연수기간에 꼭 해야 할 일 두 가지가 있다. **첫째는 speaking competence 를 기르는 것이요, 둘째는 단어 많이 알기이다**. 우리 반에 정 지영 선생님이라고 수정고(등학교)에서 근무하는 동갑내기 trainee 가 있는데 그녀가 참 부럽다. 단어도 많이 알고, 막힘 없이 speak English 하고, 모의수업 진행도 굉장히 자연스럽고 부드럽게 잘 이끌어가더라. 어쨌든 제대로 된 공부가 되려면 두려워 하지 말고 열심히 영어로 말하길 계속 해야 하는데.." (the 5th entry of diary)

As read in the excerpt, she placed speaking competence as the main focus of her learning and believed that knowing more words would contribute to improving her speaking skills further (Interview). Her interest in increasing vocabulary knowledge was also mentioned in other entry of diary, showing her focused concern (the 11th entry; the 22nd entry). Jung-MI's belief in speaking ability was originated from her perception of a capable teacher in today's Korean context. Even though she felt quite confident about her teaching in general, she was unconfident about her English speaking skills (Interview). Therefore, as a tool to be a capable teacher, Jung-Mi decided to be an English language learner again.

As the program progressed, Jung-Mi's comments on her perceived lack of her English skills became less frequent, but the comments on some positive aspects of her language use emerged. For

[2] Pseudonyms are used for people and schools mentioned in this paper.

instance, along with her gradually increasing participation in the program, Jung-Mi came to feel more comfortable in speaking in English, which subsequently made her less nervous compared to her at the beginning of the program (the 20th entry). In addition, instructors' positive comments on her performance also encouraged her to feel more assured about her English proficiency (the 22th entry; the 35th entry). In the interview, later, she acknowledged that she regarded her as a more competent English user, and thus she was not afraid of conducting a whole class in English (Interview).

In spite of the positive changes in her perception of her own English skills, however, Jung-Mi reported her dissatisfaction with the contents of the program as an experienced language teacher. Most of all, the contents of most courses were teaching-relevant but perceived not useful for her as an experienced language teacher in Korea. For example most of the activities or games introduced in one course were not applicable in her teaching practice at school at all (the 20th entry). Some assignments were also perceived as impractical because they did not really reflect the messy reality of classroom instruction. Although the program requires lots of micro-teaching sessions, thirdly, Jung-Mi considered them not really feasible in that most teachers already knew them and in that the context where micro-teachings were conducted in the program was very different from the real school classroom situations. While talking about a final assignment of making a lesson plan of a course, Jung-Mi wrote about the issue as follows;

> "**수업은 play 가 아니다.** 실제 상황이 어떻게 진행될지 확실이 알지 못하는데, 적절한 계획을 세우고 예상 멘트만 준비하면 될 것을 왜 일일이 다 적으라는 것인지" (the 30th entry)

Subsequently, she perceived that some contents of the program did not significantly contribute to improving her English in general. Rather, Jung-Mi perceived that the program should provide more non-teaching relevant but still proficiency-enhanced courses, such as speaking, writing, listening, and reading(Interview). These courses are believed to enhance her language proficiency beyond that of an English teacher, revealing her strong identity as a language learner. Despite of her strong language learner identity, however, Jung-Mi felt the pressure for change in her instruction as a result of this English teacher education program;

> **내년에 학교로 돌아가서 과연 어떻게 가르칠 것인가가 내게도 가장 큰 고민거리이다.** 예전 방식을 바꾸지 않는다면 그야말로 최악의 case 이고, 그렇다고 **여기서 배운 것들을 직접 수업에 활용한다는 것도 너무 힘든 일이다**. (the 20th entry)

As an experienced teacher, that is, Jung-Mi was well aware of the discrepancy between theory and practice. Jung-Mi was actually experiencing the difficulties in bridging the gap between what she learned from the teacher education program and what she should teach at her current English classrooms. In particular, due to her current students' low-proficiency, the school exam system neglecting students' different proficiency levels, and reading-based textbooks, it is challenging for Jung-Mi to change her instruction into one more similar to what she had experienced in the program.

> 지금 인제- 아무래도 **수준이 많이 낮은 학생들**을 대상으로 하다 보니까- 이 학생들은 100 % 한국말로- 우리말로 설명해줘도 못 알아듣는 학생들이 거의 50% 이상이기 때문에 게네들 데리고 영어로 수업을 한다는 것 자체가 너무 불가능하다고 생각이 들고, 그 다음에 또 **지금 시험기간이 임박**하다 보니까 우리나라 수준별 수업의 제일 큰 문제점 중의 하나가 뭐냐 하면 수준을 나눠서 수업을 하지만, 평가를 똑같이 하기 때문에, 아무리 하반 학생이래도 시험에 나오는 범위는 다 커버를 해야 되니까, **그 애들을 데리고 그걸 영어로 커버한다는 거는 거의 불가능 하다고 보거든요?**
>
> (Interview)

Consequently, despite her improved English proficiency and being competent in teaching class in English, Jung-Mi's current instructional context neither allowed her to reproduce her learning from the teacher education program nor did she feel the needs for the reproduction. Being an experienced member of Korean high school English teaching community, Jung-Mi seemed widely aware of what should be prioritized in the reality and accordingly what she should focus on her instruction.

V. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings from Jung-Mi's experience of content-based language teacher education program provide some valuable implications for both content-based instruction and language teacher learning. Regarding the content-based instruction, first, the program is believed to contribute to improving Jung-Mi's English proficiency a certain extent. As was articulated above, however, the program was not quite successful for preparing Jung-Mi for her professional life after the program. Of course, it is difficult to argue that the contents of the program are solely responsible for it. Institutional and social constraints existing in South Korean school contexts function against the reproduction. At the same time, however, this also suggests that, when planning and designing a content-based English teacher program, the program designers should also consider these constraints the teachers would re-face when they leave the program. As an experienced English language teacher in Korea, Jung-Mi knew her current contexts and thus rejected to reproduce what she was told to do in the program.

Finally, if a teacher learning is indeed a dialogic process of change of teacher oneself and his or her instructional activity, it might be too early to conclude regarding Jung-Mi's professional development connected to the program. Some activities Jung-Mi did in program transformed her and her perceptions to a certain extent. Simultaneously, her beliefs and perceptions transformed the activity by letting some activities not occur at all in this study. More longitudinal observations of her activity and thus her(self) in diverse instructional contexts would tell more about her professional development as a teacher, and this should be the interest of a future study.

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Eun-Ju Kim
General Education
Chung-Ang University
02-820-5721
exk188@gmail.com

Biodata

Eun-Ju Kim, Ph.D. teaches several college level classes at Chung-Ang University. Her research interest includes EFL teacher learning and professional development, sociocultural theoretic perspectives on language acquisition and instructions, classroom discourse analysis, and academic writing.

Speaking tests in advanced EFL conversation courses

James Trotta (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

I. Introduction

In this paper I present several types of English speaking tests and discuss how well the tests have met several of the challenges EFL teachers face in evaluating advanced conversation students.

One challenge is that Korean universities do not normally place students in conversation classes according to their proficiency level. The result is that courses titled advanced conversation may have intermediate and advanced English speakers. In some conversation classes at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies I have had native and near-native speakers mixed in with the intermediate and advanced students.

Another challenge is that these classes are often curved, meaning that a certain percentage of students can receive A or better, a percentage of students can receive B or better, and the remaining students must receive a C+ or lower. In classes with mixed proficiency students, teachers need to make sure that their speaking tests do not become proficiency tests. If grades reflect primarily English proficiency, advanced speakers will not need to make any real effort to improve because they will do better on the tests while lower proficiency students will also see that no matter how much or how little effort they make, they will not be able to compete with the more advanced speakers.

A third challenge is that with relatively little class time it becomes difficult to test what you teach and it becomes essential to make each test a learning experience. Advanced speakers have, in most cases, been studying English for years before we see them in our classrooms for 2 or 3 hours a week. While English proficiency will help students in any speaking test, teachers must search for ways to test what was focused on in their class, rather than students' overall proficiency.

In addition, speaking tests often require several hours, which makes these tests a significant chunk of class time considering that classes meet only 32-48 hours per semester. I might meet students at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies' conversation classes for about 30 hours since each class is 2 hours and we might lose 1 class due to holiday. If 4 hours are devoted to testing, those hours devoted to assessment need to help students improve their English language proficiency.

II. Conversation Tests

One method that I've found useful is to ask students to discuss specific content areas that we have covered in class. This satisfies Bachman's (1990) demand that test content match course content. For example, in a conversation class based on students describing aspects of Korean culture and comparing them with North American culture, I ask students, in pairs, to discuss cultural differences between North America and South Korea for their midterm and final exams.

Students are assessed on the accuracy of their comparisons but not on accuracy in general. I devote class time to the language used for comparisons so that is the language I assess for accuracy; looking at overall accuracy would have made the test more of a general proficiency test. Students were also assessed on fluency. However, the bulk of the assessment was based on content. I asked students to add original, quality ideas to the discussion. For example if a student was discussing the cultural differences between American and Korean high schools they could compare scenes from Hollywood movies with their own experiences in Korean high schools.

III. Roleplay Tests

I have had some success using roleplays as assessment tools for conversation classes. In one class I asked students to design roleplays in groups. According to Bachman & Palmer (1996) it is good for students to be involved in creating tasks for their own tests: "*If test takers are involved in this way*, *we would hypothesize* that the *test* tasks are likely to be perceived as more authentic and interactive, and that test takers will have a more positive perception of the test, be more highly motivated, and probably perform better."

Students were responsible for two roleplays because I did not want them creating a dialogue and memorizing it. On the day of the exam, one of the roleplays was chosen randomly. Students were assessed on their use of rejoinders, follow up questions, interruptions, clarification requests, avoiding questions, how well students worked to achieve the goals stated on their role card, and fluency (how well students build a conversation based on what the partner says). Accuracy was assessed as it applied to each required function. For example students could earn up to three points for follow-up questions. To earn these three points they needed to use three or more follow-up questions correctly – no points were awarded for a follow-up question that contained errors.

If Bachman & Palmer's (1996) hypothesis is correct and students do perceive the task as being more authentic and interactive, that doesn't necessarily mean that the students' perceptions will be correct. The first time I tried this, I found that students tended to create roleplays with no gaps or conflicts. Teachers need to closely monitor student groups in order to make sure students create roleplays that leave the players a reason to communicate with each other. I suggested that the students give each role three goals and that the goals create some conflicts between the two characters. The following is one student-created roleplay used for a final exam. I edited the language while keeping the students' situation:

A. You are a 26-year-old Korean student going to an MT event with your department. You see person B, a young exchange student that you want to talk to. Start a conversation with B. Make sure to ask B's age and tell B your age so that B knows to treat you with respect. Goals: Explain Korean culture to B. Find out about B's past sexual partners. Get B to do a love shot with you.

B. You are a 20-year old exchange student from the U.S. This is your first MT. Speak with person A to learn about Korean MTs and culture in general. Goals: Don't drink soju. Don't reveal anything too personal. Explain American culture to A.

IV. Storytelling Tests

This method of assessment is a way to incorporate more error correction into advanced classes, in which the students are very fluent and it often seems unreasonable to interrupt a very interesting conversation to point out minor errors. Students type and submit a story they want to practice telling. I collect the stories and give students some advice on how to improve the language they use to tell the story. Students tell the story while trying to incorporate some of my suggestions. As they tell the story they have to deal with interruptions, comments, questions, and clarifications from other students. When used as an assessment tool, part of each student's grade is determined by how improved the story is while a smaller part of their grade is based on the interruptions and questions they use when other students are telling their stories as well as their fluency during both parts of the test. It's actually fairly simple to assess; the teacher can count the number of errors the student was able to fix. Of course, this means that students must tell the story without the teacher's corrections in front of them. It also means that the teacher must have a copy of the story and the corrections. I tell students that there's nothing wrong with memorizing the corrections I've made but that they should avoid trying to memorize the entire story, which is supposed to take about 5minutes to tell.

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James Trotta
Department of English Linguistics
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies
Phone: 010-3015-2046
Email: jtrotta@gmail.com

Biodata

James Trotta has been teaching EFL conversation classes in Korea since 2002. Currently, he is an assistant professor at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies in the Department of English Linguistics. His current projects include a reading textbook and exploring learners' improved accuracy in conversation classes. His website is www.eslgo.com.

Teachers' Views on the Online Student Evaluations of Teaching

Shih-hsien Yang (Department of Applied Foreign Languages, National Formosa University)

Abstract

This study aimed to discuss the online student evaluations of teaching (SETs) for language teachers, with the purpose of understanding and evaluating teachers' own performance as well as the effectiveness of their teaching from the students' perspective. Data sources were from two parts: a questionnaire and the interview. Twenty-five language teachers were invited to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaire contained questions about the effectiveness and reliability that teachers thought of the online SETs. Three teachers were selected to conduct a further interview. Results showed that the online SETs could not really examine the appropriateness and effectiveness of teachers' teaching. More sources other than SETs must be implemented and provided teachers with meaningful information that helps improve the quality and application of their teaching.

Keyword: student evaluations of teaching, professional development

I. Introduction

The trend of assessing students is shifting from a sorting approach to a more functional approach (Wortham, Barbour, & Desjean-Perrotta, 1998). Traditional assessments such as standardized tests and surveys were replaced by performance-based assessments such as portfolios for teachers to fairly evaluate each individual (Stone, 1995). While the focus of assessment falls on students, many researchers failed to assure that all teachers were of sufficient caliber and needed no improvement (Apple, 1999; Gelfer, Xu, & Perkins, 2004). In recent years, the utility of reflective practice as a means to facilitate teachers' growth in professional knowledge has been explored by a number of educational scholars (Thompson & Thompson, 1996; Manouchehri, 2002). Ng, Lane, and Thye (2004) report that "Singapore needs reflective teachers who can continually reflect upon their own practices to find better ways of teaching as well as maintain their purpose and direction amid a sea of changes" (p.200). Burnett and Lingam (2007) express that reflecting critically upon teachers' own practice can help not only to reshape a program that suits the needs of the schools but also to debate about the purposes of education in the region. Lyons (2006) also indicates that reflective inquiry affects and changes teachers' professional practice. While there are many different ways for teachers to reflect on themselves such as portfolios and study groups, teacher assessment done by the students is one of the options available to evaluate the teaching effectiveness.

The pedagogical and social reasons for assessing teachers must go beyond simply finding out whether teachers are efficiently passing on the knowledge and skills to students. Under the social justice approach, teacher assessment must be concerned with social justice both inside and outside the classroom (Apple, 1999). Apple (1999) points out five principles for teacher assessment: (1) assessment should improve the life chances of the most disadvantaged students; (2) assessment should create a voice for marginalized or silenced students; (3) teachers should get support from the assessment rather than highlighting defects; (4) encourage teachers to celebrate differences and diversity; (5) assessment should provide teachers time and space to construct curricula that connect students' lives and experiences. Burden (2008) also criticizes that using quantitative evaluation as a measurement for teachers' effectiveness and efficiency might lead to an exclusion from dialogue for teachers to improve their own teaching. Therefore, this study tried to implement both quantitative data and along with teacher interviews as the research sources.

I-1. Research Questions：

According to the research focus, this study tried to answer the following questions:

1 Does the online assessment help teachers reflect and improve their teaching?

2 To what extent, if any, do teachers change emotionally and/or pedagogically when they teach?

II. Methodology

II-1 Participants

The participants were twenty-five college teachers in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages at a national university in central Taiwan. Thirteen male and twelve female teachers were invited and their number of teaching years ranged from one to 24 years. One professor, three associate professors, ten assistant professors and eleven lecturers participated in this study. Interviews were conducted later to explore more perspectives and insights for the teacher assessment.

Table 1. The information of all participants

				N=25	%	gender	%
Professor	1	4	M	4			
Associate professor				3	12	1M/2F	4/8
Assistant professor				10	40	4M/6F	16/24
Lecturer				11	44	7M/4F	28/16

II-2. Data Collection

A modified questionnaire was delivered to the twenty-five language teachers. This study utilized the Tseng & Tsai's (2007) questionnaire dealing with the opinions of peer online evaluation. Thirteen questions in the first part contained questions about how teachers responded to and reflected on students' evaluations on their ways of teaching. The second part contained five questions about what teachers think of the online teacher assessment system. Both the Likert-scale and two open ended questions were listed on the questionnaire enabling the researcher to probe more details about what teachers thought of the online teacher assessment.

II-3. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated and presented for statistical analysis. The analysis explored the language teachers' understanding and evaluation of their own teaching performance as well as the effectiveness from the student evaluations of teaching.

III. Results

From the data collected, the researcher analyzed the data and listed them in Table 2. and Table 3. There were thirteen questions in part one of the questionnaire regarding how teachers responded to and reflected on students' evaluations on the SETs. Part two of the questionnaire had five questions which related to the online SETs at this university. The three interviews were presented later as well.

Table 2. Part I of the questionnaire and results:

	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. Generally speaking, SETs help my teaching.					
	0	11 (44%)	9 (36%)	5 (20%)	0
2. SETs help me understand what students need for this course.					
	0	8 (32%)	7 (28%)	10 (40%)	0
3. SETs make me nervous and induce tension.					
	0	5 (20%)	5 (20%)	15 (60%)	0
4. SETs give fair outcomes for my teaching.					
	0	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	20 (80%)	0
5. Students give fair judgments and comments in SETs.					
	0	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	20 (80%)	0

6. SETs increase my teaching enthusiasm.					
	0	10 (40%)	8 (32%)	7 (28%)	0
7. SETs increase the communications with my students.					
	0	5 (20%)	5 (20%)	15 (60%)	0
8. SETs is a fair way to evaluate my teaching.					
	0	3 (12%)	1 (4%)	21 (84%)	0
9. I am satisfied with the SETs report.					
	0	15 (60%)	3 (12%)	7 (28%)	0
10. SETs could represent teachers' performances.					
	0	5 (20%)	8 (32%)	12 (48%)	0
11. Teachers should be evaluated by the students.					
	0	3 (12%)	1 (4%)	21 (84%)	0
12. In what ways would I change based on students' comments? (Open-ended)					
13. What good/bad comments impressed you the most? (Open-ended)					

(Note: SA=strongly agree; A=agree; N=neutral; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree)

According to the data collected, though teachers agreed in some way that SETs could provide some general feedback for their teaching, 40% of teachers expressed that SETs increased their teaching enthusiasm. But, many teachers (60%) did not think SETs provide good communications between teachers and students. Furthermore, 84% of teachers did not even think that SETs were fair and that evaluations should be done by students.

For question number twelve, many participants showed that they might change their teaching pace and might reconsider the proper textbook they used for the course. They would apply some more interesting activities in their classes. Some expressed that they would try to be more humorous and not to be too strict and serious in class. Some teachers expressed that they would ask for comments from their students in the middle of the semester in order to adjust their teaching patterns.

For question number thirteen, many participants indicated that good comments such as teacher's efficacy and friendliness increase their enthusiasm of teaching and build good connections with their students. However, bad comments such as "the teacher sucks" and "the teacher is boring" were considered biased and prejudiced and always led the teachers disliking the students.

Table 3. Part II of the questionnaire and results:

	SA	A	N	D	SD
14. Online SETs save time.					
	0	20 (80%)	5 (20%)	0	0
15. Online SETs give more feedback.					
	0	0	5 (20%)	20 (80%)	0
16. Online SETs save more money.					
	0	19 (76%)	6 (24%)	0	0
17. Online SETs increase communications between teachers and students.					
	0	0	3 (12%)	22 (88%)	0
18. Online SETs is a fair method to evaluate teachers.					
	0	0	2 (8%)	23 (92%)	0

(Note: SA=strongly agree; A=agree; N=neutral; D=disagree; SD=strongly disagree)

From the Table 3, it is not difficult to see that though many teachers think the online SETs save money and time, they (92%) did not feel that the SETs were fair as the only way to evaluate their teaching. Even through online systems, teachers (88%) did not think it would increase the communications between them and their students.

VI. Implications

This study investigated teachers' opinions on the online assessment conducted by their students for evaluating their teachers' teaching. There were both positive and negative thoughts about the effectiveness of this online teacher assessment. However, most participants did not think the students' evaluation of teachers was a good idea. Furthermore, many researchers have pointed out that students are not an appropriate or effective source of teacher evaluation because students might be biased and not professional enough to evaluate their teachers (Calderon et al., 1996; Green et al., 1998). Johnson (2000) also indicates that student evaluation results might not be able to reflect the true scenario between teachers and students. Based on those reasons, many participants suggested many different ways to analyze and improve the SETs.

There are a number of ways to consider how the evaluation could be improved. First, we need to ensure that the data from the students was credible. If students were afraid that their grades might be affected by writing bad comments, they would not reflect the truth. In addition, if the questions on SETs were too general, it could not provide deeper and insightful feedback for teachers.

Second, more than one evaluation was needed such as peer observation or teacher reflection (Yang, 2008) because one set of assessments cannot answer all teaching situations. In terms of teacher professional development, reflection helps teachers become more effective and motivated to realize their own implicit teaching beliefs and examine their assumptions about learning and teaching to acquire a new perspective, search for alternatives, and thereby develop a new understanding of their practices (Short, Harste, & Burke, 1989). Quite a few participants suggested the usefulness of writing teaching journals and recording them, then watching their teaching videos to reflect and improve their teaching. By writing teaching journals, teachers could self-reflect and improve. By watching their own teaching video tapes, teachers could get more opportunities to review what they have done in class and make comments about their own teaching.

Due to the limitation of this study, suggestions for further studies are as follows:

First, the size of the study was really small and the sample was conducted in one department. Further studies could expand the size of the population studied and even the research regions. Data from different departments or even from different school districts are needed to validate the present study's general result.

Second, data sources should focus on teachers as well as students to constantly compare differing sides' opinions and views. Students' interviews could be conducted to gain deeper thoughts about their teachers' teaching effectiveness and efficiency. A workshop for teachers and students where they could freely discuss teaching methods, course design, and student responsibility was recommended.

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Testing Korean EFL Learners' Collocational Competence: Types of Item Formats and Receptive-Productive Dimension of Vocabulary Knowledge

Sumi Han (Seoul National University)

Acquisition and assessment of collocations are becoming growing fields of interest to SLA researchers and practitioners. This was partly motivated by a new insight that collocational competence is a critical component of second language learners' language proficiency. So far, many of the collocation-related studies have been based on lexicographical or corpus-based analyses of collocation, and second language learning and teaching. Measurement studies on collocational competence have also been carried out, but few have used standardized instruments and examined many aspects of the competence. (Gyllstad, 2007). More ideally, such research should be complemented by studies, which focus on identifying subcomponents of collocational competence by using reliable and valid tests.

The major goal of this study is to develop and validate a standardized diagnostic test for measuring collocational competence of Korean EFL students within the receptive-productive dimension of vocabulary knowledge. For investigating receptive and productive collocational competence, the newly-developed collocation test consisted of the four 10-item parts, representative of one of the four different types of item formats: Korean-to-English translation, gap-filling, multiple-choice recognition, and multiple-choice error recognition. The first two were 'productive' items and the others were 'receptive' items.The validity of the newly-developed collocation test was examined by using as a concurrent criterion, MWAT (a modified version of Read's (1998) Word Associates Test). As a depth of vocabulary knowledge test, the MWAT separately measured paradigmatic vocabulary knowledge (MWAT-M) and syntagmatic or collocational vocabulary knowledge (MWAT-C). All the two tests were administered to a total of 195 Korean high school and university students. Pre- and post-test questionnaires were administered to collect participants' background information. A brief interview with a few selected test-takers was also conducted after the test. Both statistical and psychometric analyses were performed, including score reliability, and correlation, and item analyses.

The findings of the study showed that the scores on the collocation test, MWAT-M and MWAT-C were significantly associated with English language proficiency levels of the participants, respectively. Proficient learners consistently did better on the tests than low proficient ones. More specifically, the scores on the productive part, gap-filling and on the receptive part, multiple-choice error recognition were lower than the other two. Thus no generalization was drawn out that receptive or productive collocational competence was larger than the other in the case of the participants. Furthermore, the collocation test, MWAT-M, and MWAT-C achieved a relatively high level of total score reliability. The scores on the collocation test had a moderately high relationship with those on the MWAT-M and -C, but were more highly correlated with MWAT-C. More importantly, the scores on the receptive parts of the collocation test were more highly correlated with those on the MWAT-C than did those on the productive parts. These results indicated that the collocation test and its concurrent measure measured the same construct, collocational competence, either receptive or productive. These correlations provided some validity evidence that the collocation test was a depth of vocabulary knowledge test and more specifically, a measure for collocational competence. The results from the questionnaires and interview also showed that the tests were difficult mainly because of a lack of knowledge of collocation, and the tests' layouts were easy to follow and the test instructions were very clear. According to the results of item analyses, the collocation test was well written except for several items in terms of item facility and discrimination. Consequently, the results and findings apparently demonstrated that the newly-made collocation test can be regarded as a test for investigating Korean EFL learners' receptive and productive collocational competence in a diagnostic manner.

Although the collocation test appears to be sensitive to the ability of Korean EFL learners to recognize and use knowledge of verb-noun collocations, there are several limitations regarding the test development, which will be discussed while giving recommendations for future research on collocation in vocabulary assessment and second language learning and teaching. In vocabulary assessment, future studies could use different collocation types or item types to gain further

understanding of many aspects of EFL learners' collocational competence. As the current study focused on the verb-noun collocation type and the four item formats, investigating competence of different collocation types and item formats would permit use to identify what collocational competence looks like and how it develops. In selecting collocations in use, using corpora and other reliable resources is also recommended for gaining a representative sample of collocations. Another important research topic is to examine relationships between collocational competence and English proficiency, especially language four skills: reading, listening, speaking, and writing. This would facilitate our understanding of characteristics of collocational competence. In terms of second language teaching and learning, positive washback effects of testing collocations can be produced and so encourage learners to acquire collocational knowledge. Research on developing collocation lists may also help EFL learners learn collocation, and studying on explicit and implicit instructions of collocation could give insights to teaching methods and materials for collocation.

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Sumi Han
Department of English Language and Literature
Seoul National University
Phone: 82-10-3560-1197
Email: sumihan8@snu.ac.kr

Biodata

Sumi Han is an MA student at the graduate school of Seoul National University. Her research interests include language testing and CALL.

Test Preparation in English Speech Contests

Nahee Kim & Dongil Shin (Chung-Ang University)

I. Introduction

Various educational institutions are hosting English Speech Contests every year. Also, the use of contests is increasing for admission to colleges. Therefore, many students are taking part in the contests. According to the development of English Speech Contests, information of contests has been provided with students, and that of test preparation has been exchanged between test-takers through the internet. On the on hand, the internet has become a new means of communication. Especially, using the internet resources in language learning has been frequently discussed in the field of English education. Because the internet plays an important role for Korean English learners in terms of a large amount of authentic materials and communication opportunities. However, there has been not investigation of test preparation using the internet resources in English education.

Thus, the purpose of this paper is to examine features of English Speech Contests and test preparation activities by test-takers through the internet, focusing on the following issues: (1) test preparation information provided by the host institutions, (2) appropriateness of test-takers' test preparation activities, (3) learners' autonomy in test preparation activities

II. Test Preparation

Test preparation is considered as part of the issue of washback (Lumley & Stoneman, 2000). A test has effects on teaching and learning, on teachers and students, on attitude, and the consequences of the test (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Test preparation has no single definition in testing but instead refers various practices in particular test (Perlman, 2003). Generally, test preparation includes teaching general strategies and content from the domain being tested, and practicing with items in various formats. The effects of test preparation have led to discussion about appropriateness of test preparation (Mehren & Kaminski, 1989; Popham, 1991). The following are major issues for appropriateness of test preparation.

First, professional guidelines in testing specify that test takers should be informed of the purpose of the test and given general information about the content and format of the test. The Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999) and the Code of Fair Testing Practices in Education (JCTP, 2002) state that all test takers should be informed of any test preparation materials that are available, and of test-taking strategies that might be either beneficial or detrimental. Also, students should receive sufficient preparation for the specific test so their performance will not be adversely affected by unfamiliarity with its format or by ignorance of appropriate test-taking strategies (Perlman, 2003)

Second, the use of strategies by all test takers should be encouraged if their effect facilitates performance and discouraged if their effect interferes with performance (Standard 11.13, p. 116). The preparation of students plays a key role in appropriate test use. If test-takers use inappropriate test-taking strategies, these practices can lead to spuriously high scores that do not reflect performance on the underlying construct or domain of interest.

III. Method

1. Data Collection and Procedures

This study is to investigate features of English Speech Contests and test preparation activities by test-takers through the internet. During the data collection process from June 2008 to December 2008, the information of contests and test-preparation activities was collected from each website and a portal site(www.naver.com). In case of contests, the number of contests used for data collection is all seven. Introduction, goal and criteria information provided by the host institution were analyzed. The table 1 indicates names of English Speech Contests.

Table 1 Names of English Speech Contests

English Speech Contests	Websites
International English Test	www.ietcentre.org
FLEX-English Test	www.eflex.co.kr/home.html
HCN English Speech Contest for Elementary	www.hcn.co.kr/english/main.hcn
ILOVEMILK English Speech Contest	espeech.ilovemilk.or.kr/
English Speech Contest for Korean Students	http://www.waaeo.or.kr/sub02_03.php
IYF English Speech Contest	www.iyf.or.kr/iyf/UI/ESC/introESC_2008.aspx
CAU English Test	http://www.jrgtelp.co.kr/cau/cau.htm

In case of test preparation practice, 'naver 지식 in' was selected in terms that many learners have mostly used the portal site for communication. To get information about that how test-takers are preparing in English speech contests, it could be authentic data. During the data analysis process, key words or phrases will be categorized and counted by frequency. After repeated coding, final categories will be constructed.

IV. Results

1. English Speech Contests

Table 2 Frequency of Contests Information

Key Phrase	Frequency
Tradition and hosting experiences	14
Guide for English education	7
Construct tested by contests	7
Selection of the talented	6
Objectivity and Reliability	5
Others	5
Increasing Motivation	4

Table 2 indicates the frequency of information such as contests introduction and goals. The highest frequency was 'Tradition and hosting experiences'(14 times). It has been used for promoting the contests. Generally, the contests have focused on directing 'guide for English Education and Leaning'(7 times). 'Construct tested by contests' was revealed 7times.

The goals of the contests were to select the talented and increase motivation for English learning. All contests have been advertising that they are leading to effective English learning and instruction as the goals of contests. However, they have provided little information of test preparation. It also was occurred in assessment criteria.

2. Test Preparation Activities by test-takers

This part is on the process of data analyzing because this research is working paper. Although the analysis have been not finished, it appears that most students have been preparing in English speech contest using inappropriate test preparation practices such as copying scripts and unreasonable requests.

IV. Conclusion

It is far too early to conclude anything. Instead, it can be expected that there are gap between the contests' goals suggested by the host institutions, and realistic test preparation by test-takers. The host

institutions have suggested that they are providing good guides for English learning. However, it lacks of test preparation information. On the other hand, test-takers have been preparing for the contests not by themselves, rather they have been heavily relying on others. It can be discrepancy between goals and test preparation of contests.

Test preparation activities may either increase test validity or reduce it. Certain test preparation activities may have a negative impact on students' language learning by overemphasis on test-taking skill and strategies. Overemphasis on test-taking skill comes to cause narrowing of language learning and do not represent test-takers' actual performance. Therefore it leads to inappropriate test-preparation and loss of autonomy in language learning.

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Nahee Kim
Department of English
Chung-Ang University
Phone: 010-4302-1357
Email: jk52@wm.cau.ac.kr

Dongil Shin
Department of English
Chung-Ang University
Phone: 02-820-5098
Email: shin@cau.ac.kr

Biodata

Nahee Kim is a Ph.D. student in the Department of English at Chung-Ang University. She is teaching English instruction course at Chung-Ang University. Her main research interests include test-preparation in language testing, test-takers' identity & language learning, and speaking assessment.

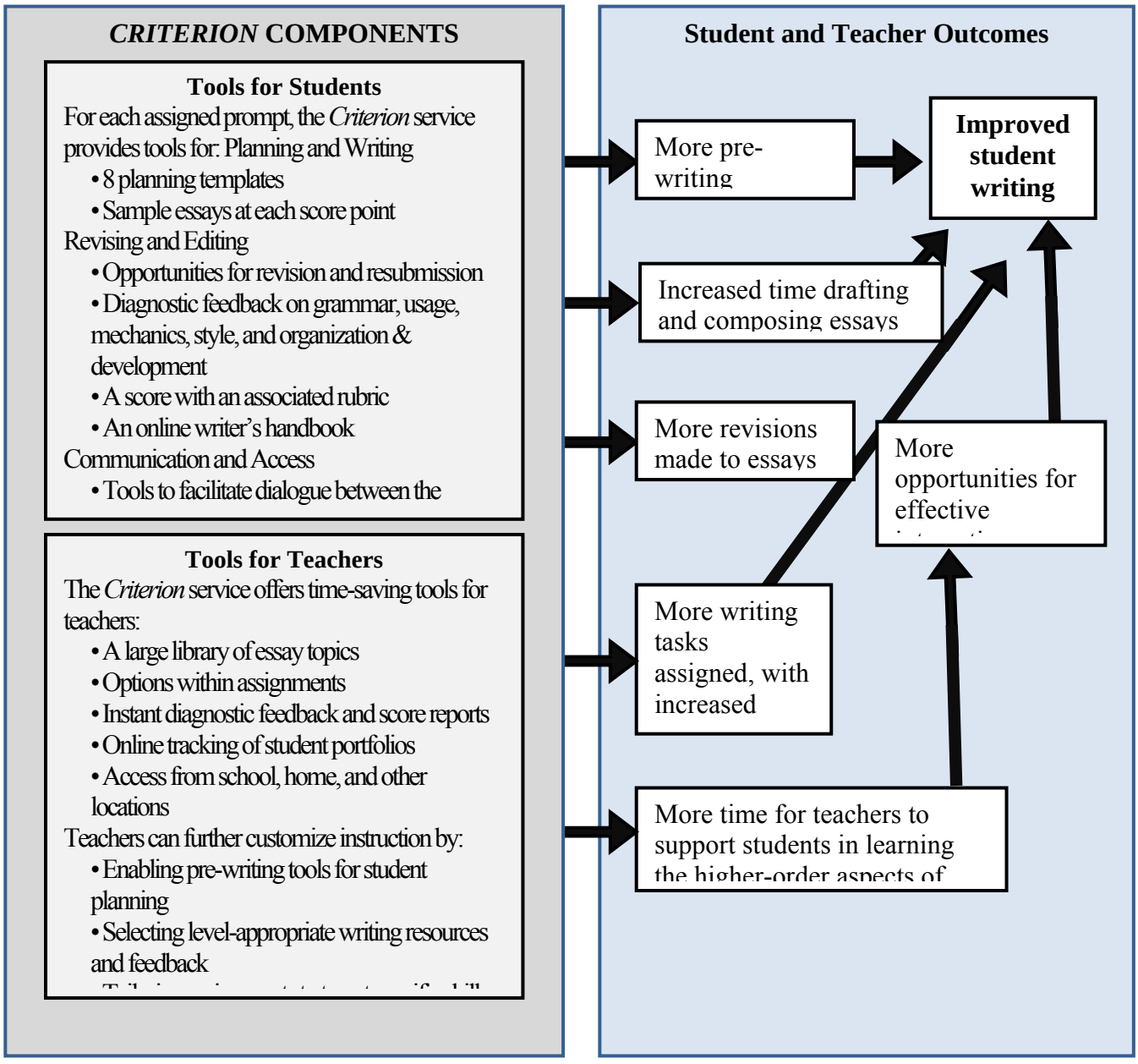
Dongil Shin is Professor of English at Chung-Ang University. His research interests include issues in language testing, test development, speaking, and storytelling.

Criterion® Online Writing Evaluation Service

Presenter: Peter Kim

ETS invests substantial resources in designing products to improve student learning and in evaluating their effects. One such product — the *Criterion*SM Online Writing Evaluation Service — was designed to do just that. The *Criterion* service supports classroom instruction and assessment by giving students an overall score as well as immediate, individualized, constructive, and specific diagnostic feedback on their essays. These components improve the writing process (planning, drafting, feedback, revising, and sharing work) by providing a mechanism for students to draft essays, receive immediate feedback, and revise work in the same or consecutive class periods.

While we don't yet have results from randomized controlled trials that demonstrate the *Criterion* service's ability to improve student writing, this document sets out our thoughts on how the *Criterion* service might improve student writing, if used regularly and appropriately. This document also describes evidence from studies that did not use the *Criterion* service, but that generally support our position. In the diagram below, each numbered arrow refers to specific supporting evidence that is detailed in the research document that accompanies this discussion.



Reference

Research tells us that students are more likely to engage in planning and pre-writing activities if they are provided with tools to facilitate those processes (Goldstein & Carr, 1996; Lane, Harris, Graham, Weisenbach,
Brindle & Morphy, 2008). Furthermore, when students engage in these activities, their writing improves
(Deatline-Buchman & Jitendra, 2006; Graham & Perin, 2007; Wong, Butler, Ficzere, & Kuperis, 1997; Chai,
2006; Goldstein & Carr, 1996).

Providing immediate, individualized, and specific feedback encourages students to write more extensively
and to revise their work more intensively; also, using information technology in the classroom increases the
time students spend on writing (e.g., Beach, 1979; Covill, 1997; Etchison, 1989; Fitzgerald,1987; Goldberg,
Russell, & Cook, 2003; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Solomon, Lutkus, Kaplan, & Skolnik, 2004).

Using technology for classroom assignments also gives teachers more time to support students in learning
the higher-order aspects of writing and to interact with individuals and with the whole class at a higher level
(e.g., Greenwald, Persky, Campbell, & Mazzeo, 1999; Solomon et al., 2004; Tiene & Luft, 2001).
When students increase their writing and revising activities and teachers have time to interact with students
on a deeper level, students see significant improvements in the quality of their writing (e.g., Bardine,
Bardine, & Deegan, 2000; Butterfield, Hacker, & Plumb, 1994; Cochran-Smith, 1991; Fitzgerald, 1987;
Gentile, 1992; Goldberg et al., 2003; Greenwaldet al., 1999; Lehr, 1995; Solomon et al., 2004; Tiene & Luft,
2001; U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 1999).

Korean Elementary School Students' English Learning Demotivation: A Comparative Survey Study

Tae-Young Kim (Chung-Ang University)
Hyo-Sun Seo (Chung-Ang University)

I. Introduction

This study investigates gradual demotivation (i.e., decrease in motivation) among Korean elementary school students in a major city in South Korea. By using a three-point Likert type questionnaire, this study analyzes the data obtained from 6,301 elementary school students from Grades 3 to 6 attending 30 different schools in the city; and a variety of demotivational aspects are reported in this paper. Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) recent concept of possible L2 selves is used to explain the demotivational trends found in Korean elementary school students.

The importance of English is continually stressed by most members of Korean society, and thus the social pressure to learn English, even before learning it in public schools, is rapidly increasing. This paper focuses on students' motivational strengths from Grades 3 to 6. It also explores the effect of private instruction beforehand on students' motivation. By investigating two groups of students based on the experience of attending private institutions for extra schooling, also known as *hakwon*s, it aims to identify the relationship between the experience of private English instruction and various sub-components of Korean elementary school students' motivation.

II. Method

In order to investigate the longitudinal changes in English learning motivation among Korean elementary school students, questionnaire data were collected in a major city in Korea in the Fall semester of 2008. The city of investigation has five school districts: South, North, East, West, and Island. Since it was assumed that the socio-educational contexts in different school districts could be an affecting factor for the students' motivational changes, the questionnaire data were collected in all five school districts. The participants in the study were 6,301 elementary school students from Grades 3 and 6 (*n* of Grade 3 = 1,640; *n* of Grade 4 = 1,633; *n* of Grade 5 = 1,436; *n* of Grade 6 = 1,592) attending 30 different schools in the city. In the present study, 81.8 percent of students responded that they either received or now receive private instruction; and 18.2 percent of the population did not attend private institutes.

1. Materials

Reflecting on Lamb's (2007) closed questionnaire items, the questionnaire included twelve items, and each item asked different aspects of English learning motivation. The 12 questionnaire items were: 1) students' satisfaction with progress in English (item # 1, 4, 5), 2) expectation of ultimate success in English (item # 2, 3), 3) the perceived importance of English (item # 6), 4) the relative importance of English compared to other school subjects (item # 7), 5) instrumental motivation (item # 8), 6) intrinsic motivation (item # 9), 7) integrative motivation (item # 10), 8) extrinsic motivation (parental influence) (item # 11), and 9) extrinsic motivation (academic influence) (item # 12).

2. Analyses

Kruskal Wallis tests were conducted to measure the effect of students' school grades on their English learning motivation, and Mann-Whitney tests were done in order to identify the influence of private instruction on students' motivation. SPSS version 13.0 was used, and the Alpha set was .05.

III. Results

1. General Trends in Korean Elementary School Students' Motivation

It was found that the students' motivation, their satisfaction with progress in English, and their expectation for future success in English all show a consistent decrease as they advance to a higher school grade. Both instrumental and integrative motivations were strong (m = 2.35 and 2.32 respectively), whereas constructs on intrinsic, extrinsic (parental), and extrinsic (academic) motivations were relatively weak (m = 1.95, 1.75, and 1.71). Kruskal Wallis tests corroborate that significant changes exist from positive to negative responses in each item as students advance to a higher school grade. Note that the decline in students' intrinsic motivation (χ^2 = 410.181), compared to other motivational constructs, is the sharpest. This means that the initial interest in learning a new foreign language at Grade 3 substantially diminishes. The decrease in students' satisfaction with English learning experience in public school (Item #4, χ^2 = 436.648) should also be noted. This reflects students' growing dissatisfaction with the public English education, which seems related to the decrease in their expectation of ultimate success in English in public school (Item #2, χ^2 = 394.135). To summarize the result, Korean elementary school students are increasingly dissatisfied with the quality of both public and private English education, and their motivational constructs also consistently decreased.

2. The Effect of Private Instruction

A series of Mann-Whitney tests were conducted to identify the effect of private instruction (e.g., hakwons) on students' motivations, expectation, and satisfaction level. Two student groups (i.e., those who attend private institutes vs. those who do not attend private institutes) show different expectations toward public and private English education. For the private institute group, their expectation of ultimate success in public school is lower than the students having no prior private instruction even though the difference did not reach statistical significance. The students attending private institutes had significantly higher expectations toward private instruction than the other student group (m = 2.33 vs. m = 1.89). The result showed that there exists a consistent tendency in Korean elementary school students' perceived importance of English and their motivation. In general, the students attending private institutes showed higher motivations than the non-private instruction group. The private instruction group shows more instrumental and intrinsic motivations than the non-private group. Mann-Whitney tests corroborate that there does not exist any statistical difference in the two groups' integrative motivation and extrinsic motivation (parental influence). In other words, even though the students with private instruction seem to have more English learning motivation, only instrumental and intrinsic motivations are strongly affected by private instruction. Integrative and extrinsic (parental) motivations are not influenced much by the experience of private instruction. It was also found that the students with no prior private instruction had significantly higher extrinsic (academic) motivation than their counterparts, which was not reported in previous research.

IV. Discussion

Data obtained from 6,301 elementary school students showed the gradual demotivational trends; and their expectation of ultimate success in English and satisfaction with English learning at both public and private institutions also followed the same decreasing patterns. The experience of private instruction exerted influences on the students' motivation, expectation, and satisfaction levels. In general, those who attended private institutes showed more motivation and their satisfaction with progress in English was significantly higher than their counterparts.

It is noteworthy that Korean elementary students investigated in this study showed a drop in all motivational constructs; their instrumental, intrinsic, integrative, and extrinsic motivations all showed a significant decrease. In order to answer the overall decrease in English learning motivation, a potential clue seems to have been provided on Item #6: perceived importance of English. As the students advance to a higher school grade, they gradually devalue the importance of English. From the perspective of Dörnyei (2005, 2009), the increase in the perceived importance of English may be the indication of the students' seeing their possible English-speaking selves. The reason for this is because the questionnaire item focuses on students' subjective perception of the importance of English; if the students thought that English, as the subject of either public education or private instruction, was meaningful to them, they must have evaluated the item positively. The positive

response to the item reflects the internalization of the dominant social discourse of English as an international language. Korean students, if they had realized and internalized the importance of English, the response to Item #6 must have shown the pattern of a gradual increase because they had been exposed to a culminating amount of input emphasizing the benefits of English learning as they grew old. However, students do not seem to value the importance of English as they advance to a higher school grade, which means that students do not see the positive possible English-speaking selves. In such occasions, even though students may reach a tacit agreement on the benefits of learning English, their motivational maintenance may be at risk without seeing a positive possible self after or during the phase of English learning.

Students who attended private institutions perceived the importance of English significantly higher than those who did not attend them. By being physically present at a private institute, the student may have an increased opportunity to hear about the importance of learning English. However, this should not be interpreted as supporting evidence siding with the private instruction. That is because even though the students attending private institutions may have a better chance to ponder upon the beneficial effects of learning English than the other student group, this initiative may lose ground unless the private instruction group endeavours to create positive possible L2 selves. In other words, the private instruction cannot be a self-sufficient condition to maintain L2 learning motivation. Therefore, this study suggests that the key to maintaining/increasing EFL learning motivation is not prevailing social discourse of English as a lingua franca and the expenditure spent on private English education, but each EFL learner's making personal sense of the importance of and meaning of English learning.

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Tae-Young Kim & Hyo-Sun Seo
Department of English Education
Chung-Ang University
Phone: 82-2-820-5392 (Office)
Email: tykim@cau.ac.kr (Tae-Young Kim) thysun@wm.cau.ac.kr (Hyo-Sun Seo)

Biodata

Tae-Young Kim (Ph.D. OISE/Univ. of Toronto) is assistant professor at Chung-Ang University. His research areas include L2 learning/teaching (de)motivation, sociocultural theory, activity theory, and qualitative research methods.

Hyo-Sun Seo (Ph.D. student, Chung-Ang University) teaches English at the Inchoen Samsan elementary. Her main interests are elementary school students' (de)motivation and motivational strategies.

Content and Language in Asia:
Beyond the North American and European models

Robert J. Dickey (Gyeongju University)

I. Introduction

Content-based instruction (CBI), under any of its more than 40 different labels (see the website www.content-english.org for a listing), including Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Teaching Math in English, and Foreign Languages Across the Curriculum), is often subdivided in what might be called a "typology" of this field. May Shieh (1986) and Deborah Snow (1991) presented two of the earlier classifications, including ideas such as immersion, topical/modules, "sheltered" subject matter courses, and adjunct courses. Pally (2000) added "sustained" content.

In East Asia, most scholars and teachers make use of these labels when discussing their own work. However, there is a lack of agreement on definition and usage. The situation in East Asia is different than that of North America (the "inner circle," in Kachru's (1985) terms) and that of "outer circle" Singapore and the Philippines, as well as in plurilingual Europe, which, on the surface perhaps, fits in the same "emerging circle" classification as most of East Asia. However, important distinctions, such as the linguistic and geographic "distance" from English, as well as important cultural differences, add to the difficulties in relating these typologies to what is occurring in Asian classrooms.

II. What is "Content"?

As Snow (1991) observes, "[t]hroughout the history of second language teaching, the word 'content' has had many different interpretations" (p. 315). Hutchinson and Waters (1984) contrast CBI with more traditional forms of instruction:

> In a content-based approach, the focus is on exploiting the information conveyed by a text. In a language-based approach, the text is used as a source for language exercises" (p. 113).

Within academic institutions, "content" has often been construed to be the subject matter of "mainstream" courses, those courses that are required of students regardless of proficiency in any language. That is to say, the "text" is limited to academic subjects. This is consistent with the definition offered in the much-cited Brinton, Snow, & Wessche (1989), where they define CBI as the "concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills" (p. 2). It is important to note, however, that there is little agreement in the CBI community on whether such content must accurately reflect current learning requirements in "mainstream" courses or whether it merely is derived from mainstream course areas.

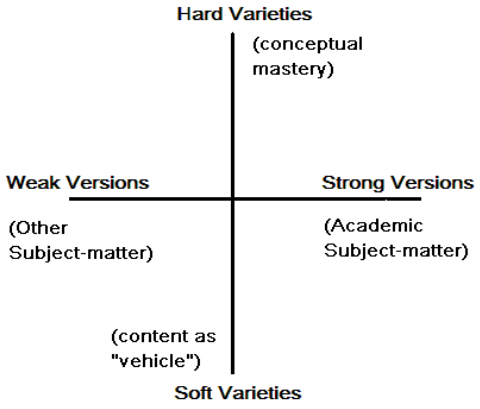
At language teacher conferences throughout the world as well as in more progressive teacher publications, "content" is often extended far beyond the course topics generally offered in academic institutions. Some suggest that courses may be "content-based in students' personal values or in areas of current or future concerns" (Bassamo, 1986, p. 18). Prodromou (1992) and Shih (1992) suggest that culture, personal, and professional interests are all viable areas for "content." Use of computers and the internet have become popular "content" (e.g., Isbell & Reinhardt, 1999), as well as video (e.g., Furmanovsky, 1997). Short (1991) offers the topic of "littering" in a model lesson (presumably under a theme of environmentalism in either social studies or science classes). Murphey (1997) includes journalism, TV commercials, and health and fitness awareness. I've suggested (Dickey, 2004) that we might consider these as "stronger" and "weaker" versions of content-based instruction, based on the type of content (which may also be influenced by its duration). We may also ask whether the language syllabus dictates the content (content as the "vehicle" to present language) or the content syllabus dictates the language, as another element in classifying CBI. See Figure 1 for an illustration.

There has been much concern voiced by language educators that "teaching through English," while well intentioned, is misguided. (Many subject matter teachers share the objection, though usually for different reasons.) Allwright & Bailey (1990) opined that focusing on current mainstream course content may be detrimental to language learning. Short (1994) offers a more moderate approach: "The language educator maintains a primary focus on language skill development but has a subsidiary goal

of preparing students for the mainstream classroom" (p. 582). McGroarty (1991), however, takes the "hard content" position:

> [c]ontent-based language instruction aims to promote conceptual mastery of a certain subject along with the language skills necessary to deal effectively with the subject (p. 381).

Figure 1. The CBI Quadrant



This hard/soft, strong/weak conflict can be contrasted with the CLIL model, which is clearly targeted to merging the instruction of traditional school courses with foreign language instruction. David Marsh (2000), one of the leading researchers in the European Commission supported movement, described it as:

> in the class there are two main aims, one related to the subject, topic, or theme, and one linked to the language. This is why CLIL is sometimes called *dual-focussed education*.

(Italics in original.)

Finally, we might conclude, like Stryker and Leaver (1997), that CBI is "more a philosophy than a methodology" (p. 3). Similarly, Snow (1991, p. 326) offers that CBI "is not so much a method as a reorientation to what is meant by 'content' in language teaching." I suggest that CBI is about text selection and use, as well as learning objectives, not about "how" to teach (method).

III. Inside Asian Classrooms

Here in Asia, expatriate English teachers have been activists for "weak content." Japan was a hotspot for CBI at the turn of the century. Stewart (1996) supports the ESP approach for content-based instruction. Murphey's (1997) thematic discussion appears to suggest that content is not linked to current lessons in other courses, as each of the six week modules target different topic areas. Isbell & Reinhardt (1999) and Furmanovsky (1997), discussed above, were Japan-based teachers as well. In terms of using CBI to mainstream students, mainstreaming is often not an objective of English-medium instruction in Asia, with the possible exception of a few "international universities" in Japan.

Perusing the past eight years' articles in KATE's own *English Teaching* journal gives an indication of how content-based instruction is being considered in Korea. (Due to length considerations, these will not be cited or discussed in detail here.) At the university level, the preponderance of courses are of the type described by Han and Dickey (2001) as "Foreign Language Medium Instruction," which match a description offered by Graham & Beardsley (1986, p. 228), where "special classes are provided for ESL learners which take into account their level of English" and linguistic and cultural adjustments are made. Far fewer classes are described in *English Teaching* relating to content-based instruction at the primary/secondary level, which is understandable considering Korea's strong test-preparation drive and relatively strict allegiance to the selected coursebook. Content beyond that included within the regular coursebook is generally limited to very short-term topical events. Looking beyond *English Teaching*, this researcher is aware of a number of private language schools (*hagwon*) and English "camps" and "Villages" that use content-based English learning courses.

IV. Conclusion and Future Studies

There is much further research to be done on content-based instruction in the Asian setting, and across the globe. One critical issue, which I noted in (Dickey) 1994, is that of cognitive load and learner stress. Studies in the primary/secondary school setting, including after-school programs and foreign language high schools, are particularly noticeable in their absence. The teaching of English through English in Korea is a political issue, as is the possibility of teaching Science and Math through English. Many in Malaysia are calling for a review of teaching Science and Math in English (see Malaysian Bar, in references list, for extracts of discussion on this issue in the Malaysian media).

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Robert J. Dickey
International English & Tourism Department
Gyeongju University
Phone: 016-834-0968
Email: rjdickey@content-english.org

Biodata

Rob Dickey has been teaching and researching in Korea since 1994, the past 11 years at Gyeongju University. His principal research interest area is content-based instruction, and he has both presented and collected local data on the topic in nearly a dozen countries across East Asia, as well as in Europe. He has taught content-courses in English and used topical, thematic, and sustained content in his English classes. He manages the content-based website www.content-english.org

Preparations for Practicing Effective English Immersion Program in Korea

Seong Su Kim
(English Mou Mou)

I. Introduction

A solid curriculum is imperative for young language learners. English was selected as a regular elementary school subject in Korea in 1997, and today, public interest in and expectations for a solid young-learner curriculum have never been higher. To fulfill these expectations, Ministry of education in Korea is preparing to introduce an English immersion program. The goal is to develop learners' interest and confidence in English so that learners may approach English naturally. The immersion program is a content-based curriculum that uses the target language not as a subject, but rather as the medium for content delivery. If the program is successful, learners will acquire the target language in much the same way that they acquired their native language. It will encourage learners to immerse themselves in content written in the target language, so that they not only achieve the learning objectives of each subject, but also acquire remarkably high proficiency in the target language through a natural approach. Learners will expand their English communicative skills in all areas: listening, speaking, reading, writing, and critical thinking.

The immersion program has proven to be 'the most successful language teaching program ever recorded in the professional language teaching literature' (Krashen, 1985). However, in order to be effective in the EFL environment of Korea, an immersion program will require some special preparations. To achieve effective results from the English Immersion Program (EIP) in Korea, it should be carefully designed ,considering three aspects: preparation for content-based instruction, task-based instruction through learner-centered activities, and student-teacher interaction and correction.

II. Pedagogy Approach to English Immersion Program in Korea

1. Preparations for Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

Under the Input Hypothesis (Krashen 1985), learners will acquire an L2 when they have access to comprehensible input. Comprehensible input, according to Krashen, becomes most valuable when the new level ($i+1$) is just beyond the learner's current level (i). In an EFL environment, in many cases, learners find themselves trying to understand content that is far higher than their current level i, and thus they encounter a barrier to acquiring $i+1$. To address this barrier, an early-immersion program in Hungary provides a curriculum called 'zeroyear' for students unable to access comprehensible input. Indeed, late-immersion programs, where students may encounter more barriers to $i+1$ than would early-immersion learners, provide L2 learners with form-focused EFL classes, or with both EFL classes and L2 immersion courses concurrently. Such 'zeroyear' and late-immersion program imply that content-based instruction is not appropriate for L2 learners whose current levels are below i. It leads to the idea that the successful contents of a 'zeroyear' curriculum, with the intention of achieving level i, will have a crucial role in EIP. Preparing L2 learners to meet comprehensible input is the key to establishing EIP successfully in Korea. Preparation should include the following: listening and speaking skills, high-frequency vocabulary, and reading and writing skills, all focusing on the divergence between English and Korean, using form-focused instruction.

1) Listening and Speaking Skills

The first step in preparation is phonics, which trains beginners to associate letters with their sound values. Although L2 learners acquire phoneme awareness through their native language, not all are able to recognize the association between sounds and letters in speaking or listening to a foreign language. Learners of English as a native language have sufficient exposure to the sounds of English without the need for formal focus on sound input. However, L2 learners of English have limited

exposure to those sounds, and thus lack the ability to distinguish sound values, or phonemes, in English. Therefore, phonics for L2 learners should focus not only on associating letters with sound values, but should offer sufficient exposure to English from the beginning to acquire those sound values.

In learning phonics, the following information facilitates L2 learners in recognizing sounds and pronouncing English correctly: the position of the tongue, the distinction between voiced and unvoiced sounds, the flow of air, and the visualization of a native speaker's mouth.

As L2 learners acquire phonics, they must learn the concepts of the syllable and intonation. However, the intonation of Korean much differs from that of English, making English particularly difficult for L2 learners in Korea. The intonation of reduced speech forms in English can pose a particular challenge. These forms carry such features as stressed and unstressed vowels, omitted sounds, function words, content words, contraction, and blending. In general communication, a sentence is formed by function and content words. If there are more than two content words in a sentence, the variation in sound becomes more dynamic. L2 learners should comprehend these concepts as well as practice them in order to interact with their peers in the immersion program.

2) Vocabulary

If English becomes the medium for content-based instruction, L2 learners should be equipped with sufficient vocabulary to comprehend the contents. Theorists differ on what constitutes sufficient vocabulary for successful content-based instruction in EIP. "To read minimal disturbance from unknown vocabulary, language users probably need a vocabulary of 15,000 to 20,000 words" (Nation 2001). Yet, according to text-coverage data (Carol, Davies, and Richman 1971), 2,000 high-frequency words will equip learners to cover 81.3 percent of a text, whereas 12,448 words will allow them to cover 95 percent. Although L2 learners can acquire these words through exposure in an immersion program, learning 2,000 high-frequency words even before they begin the program may facilitate their vocabulary acquisition during the program. Moreover, considering that words in English frequently carry inflections and derivatives, awareness of word families will help L2 learners to acquire lower-frequency, academic vocabulary more rapidly. A word family consists of a root word along with its inflected forms and its derivative forms. By learning word families, L2 learners will expand the size of their vocabularies while also improving their pronunciation as well as their facility for changing parts of speech and choosing appropriate vocabulary to convey their intended meanings.

3) Reading and Writing Skills

Under content-based instruction, reading and writing skills are crucial to comprehending course contents, and to demonstrating that comprehension. However, due to the different historical-linguistic origins of Korean and English (Korean is part of the Uralic family, whereas English has its roots in the Indo-European), Korean L2 learners of English often find difficulty understanding English grammar. Studies from immersion classes (Swain 1995) have shown that mere exposure to language is insufficient for the development of grammatical accuracy. Hence, L2 learners in Korea need to understand these grammatical differences before English can become the medium for content delivery.

In English, the verb forms the basis of a sentence, dividing the sentence into two parts: the subject or head before the verb and the predicate or complement after the verb. In Korean, the verb is at the end of a sentence, placing greater emphasis on the subject and object as content words. Such distinction makes it difficult for L2 learners to find a verb in English, with consequent difficulty locating a sentence subject, especially if that subject is a clause containing a verbal expression. Furthermore, in English, the parts of speech, or the functions of words, in a sentence are not only determined by the forms of the words, but just as importantly, by their positions in the sentence. In Korean, the parts of speech are identified through postposition particles, so that a word's position is not as crucial to determining its function. In other words, the subject is not always required to be before the verb, but may occur anywhere in a sentence. This difference may lead to confusion when Korean L2 learners read and write in English. In the following sentences, with postposition particles that make 'mom' the subject (SPW), 'mom' can be placed anywhere in a Korean sentence, while still functioning as a subject.

1.a *na-nun (SPW) saranghabnida ummam-rul.* (○)
1.b I loves mom. (○)
2.a *umma-rul saranghabnida na-nun(SPW).* (○)
2.b Mom loves I. (×)
3.a *na-nun (SPW) ummam-rul saranghabnida.* (○)
3.b I mom loves. (×)

The word '*nun*' in Korean functions as a subject postposition particle. The sentences above have the same meaning in Korean, where in English only sentence 1.b is grammatically correct. Thus, unless they understand the position of a subject in English, L2 learners may encounter difficulty deciding where to place 'mom' in an English sentence.

First, L2 learners need to know which postposition particles in Korean determine each part of speech. Second, they need to know that which places in an English sentence each part of speech may take. Third, upon their knowledge of parts of speech in both Korean and English, they need to practice forms and syntax through sequential and cumulative task-based instruction. It is imperative to comprehend the differences in grammar to attain comprehensible input in content-based instruction.

2. Task-based Instruction through Learner-centered Activities

All three types of preparation are both form-focused and meaning-focused instruction: listening and speaking skills, vocabulary, reading and writing skills. However, understanding these skills is not enough for L2 learners to apply them in communication. Considering the differences between Korean and English, L2 learners also need practice through task-based instruction. Selected authentic and sequential materials should be provided as the basis for tasks that help L2 learners obtain comprehensible input. Task-based instruction should support a learner-centered environment so that L2 learners have as many opportunities as possible to produce the language through speaking and writing, as well as to respond to language received through reading and listening.

3. Interactions and Corrections with teacher

The primary role of teachers is not to "teach" learners in the traditional, pedantic sense, but to observe learner progress and guide them toward independent language production through interaction in a learner-centered environment. Throughout this interaction, the teacher should elicit comprehensible output, which then leads learners toward higher comprehensible input. The question is, however, who should be the teachers to correct the L2 errors: L2 native speakers or Korean English teachers? In preparation courses, native speakers may not be as helpful as Korean English teachers. An L2 learner's output is based on their comprehensible input. If they make errors while interacting with a teacher, a teacher will give them focused-input on error, but it should be comprehensible. During preparation courses, it may be difficult for L2 learners and native speakers to communicate with each other in English due to the learners' insufficient level of comprehensible input.

III. Conclusion

Although many are still debating its effectiveness, EIP is a step away from taking its place in Korea. It may be a new era for EFL instruction in Korea. The immersion program is content-based instruction where L2 learners use only English as the instructional medium. However, comprehending content-based instruction is not possible without at least a minimum knowledge of English. Through preparation courses, L2 learners will first learn acquire the listening and speaking skills, vocabulary, and speaking and writing skills they need to attain a higher level of comprehensible input and output. Meanwhile, Korean teachers may interact with them and correct their errors in a way that L2 learners can follow. The implementation of EIP in Korea may be inevitable, yet before such implementation can take place, adjustments must be made so that the curriculum is appropriate for L2 learners in Korea.

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Contact Information
Seong-Su Kim
CEO of English Mou Mou
E-mail: top@moumou.co.kr

Breif Biodata
Seong-Su Kim is CEO of English MouMou, established in 2005, with more than 1,000 branches over Korea. He worked in a field of English education over 20 years.

A Study on the Analyses Methods of Vocabulary Difficulty of English Textbooks and Fairy Tales Booklets[3]

Gyu-hyung Lee (Hannam University)
Ha-ung Kim (Woosong University)
Yong-hun Lee (Chungnam Natl. Univ.)

I. Introduction

Knight (1994) mentioned that vocabulary learning is an essential part not only in language acquisition but also in language learning. At an early stage, children's vocabulary learning plays a crucial role in their language learning. According to Coady (1997) and others, it has been known that vocabulary control is needed when learning vocabulary. Nation (2001:11) said that the words which are in the higher position of the frequency rankings occupy most of the word tokens in ordinary texts. Accordingly, it would be more efficient for teachers to teach the most frequent words first. Likewise, it would be more efficient for students to learn the most frequent words first. Here, the necessity of 'vocabulary control' comes in.

The goals of this paper are (i) to measure the difficulty level of vocabularies in fairly tales using two kinds of wordlists and (ii) to compare the difficulty level in fairly tales and those of middle and high school textbooks. Through this analysis, we want to measure how the vocabularies in fairly tales are difficult compared with those of English textbooks.

II. Method

1. The Corpus Compiling

The primary goal of the present study is to analyze the difficulty level of vocabulary. In this study, we compiled a corpus using 21 booklets in Oxford Bookworms Library series. This series of booklets have seven steps, from Starter Level to Level 6. We randomly selected three books in each level and made a corpus using these 21 booklets.

2. Overall Analysis Procedure

After we compiled a corpus, we used 'NLPTools for English Education Experts' to extract some basic statistical data such as average total tokens, total types, and total lemma (Lee, 2007).

Next, we used two kinds of word-lists to calculate the difficulty levels of vocabulary. The wordlists that we used in our analyses are Basic Vocabulary Wordlists (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2006) and Collins Cobuild Wordlist (*Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2001)

After we calculated the difficulty level of vocabulary, we compared the difficulty of each level with that of another level. We also compared the difficulty level of fairy tales with the 60 middle & high school English textbooks, in order to examine how difficult the fairy tales would be.

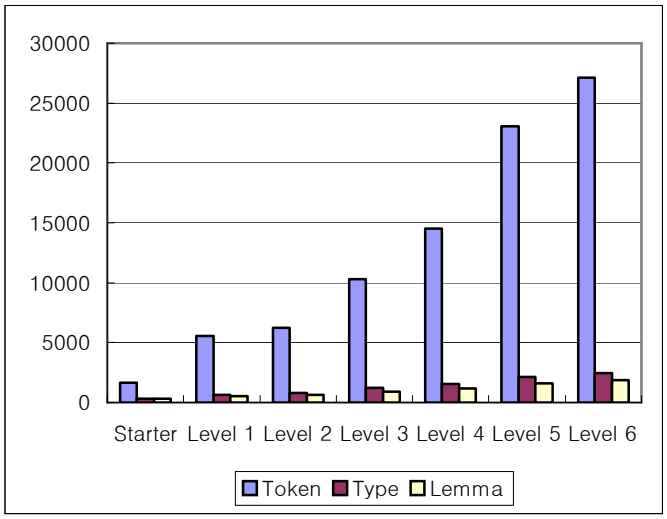
III. Analyses Results

1. Basic Statistics

[3] All the algorithms that are introduced in this paper are registered as a patent by Korean Intellectual Property Office and protected by the patent law until the year 2028. The third author of this paper is the patent holder and he has an exclusive right for the patent. We let you know that any illegal use of the algorithms without an official permission of the patent holder, especially for commercial purposes, will cause a legal responsibility by the patent law.

Now, let's start to examine the analysis results from basic statistical data. Figure 1 shows the analysis results of 21 books in the Oxford Bookworms Library Series in terms of their total tokens, types, and lemmas.

FIGURE 1
Distributions of Total Tokens, Types, and Lemmas



As shown in the figure, the total number of tokens ranges from 1,500 to 27,000; the total number of types ranges from 300 to 2,500; the total number of lemmas ranges from 200 to 2,000.

2. Analyses Using Basic Vocabulary

Now, let's start the analysis with Basic Vocabulary Wordlist. As you know, this wordlist is made by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (2006) and used in Korean high school English textbooks. We divided the words into four levels according to their frequencies in a general-purpose corpus (BNC), and the level 1 vocabulary (weight 4) is for elementary school students. The maximum score that a given text can get is 4.0. The difficulty score has to be interpreted as follows: The lower value a book has, the more difficult vocabulary the book has.

Figure 2 shows how much vocabularies belong to the Basic Vocabulary Wordlist (in percentage), and Figure 3 illustrates the results of difficulty analysis using this wordlist.

FIGURE 2
Distributions of Basic Vocabulary (%)

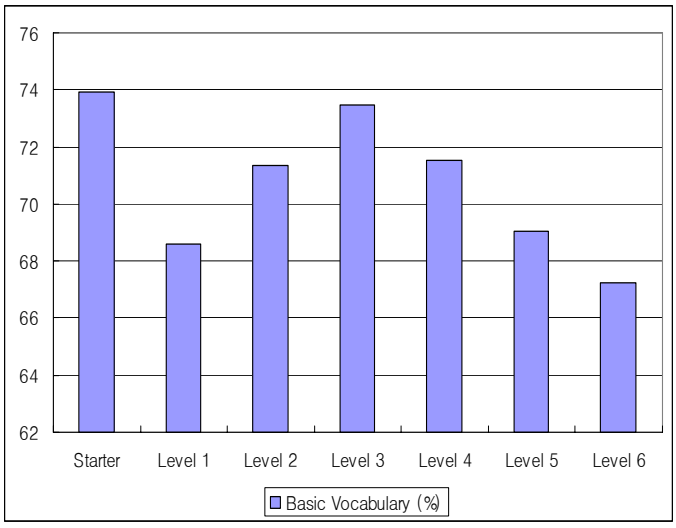
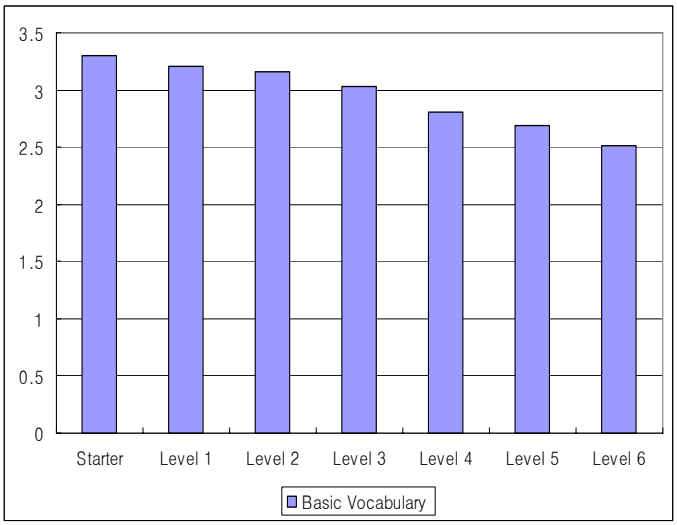


FIGURE 3
Results of Difficulty Level Analyses Using the Basic Vocabulary Wordlist

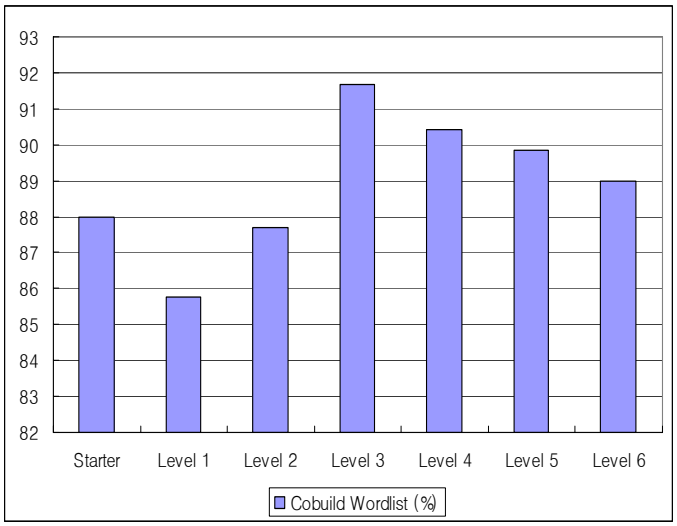


As shown in Figure 1, the percentage that Basic Vocabulary occupies in each level of the Oxford Bookworm Library series fluctuates from 67% to 74%. However, in the results of difficulty level analyses, we can observe that the difficulty scores continuously decreases, from 3.25 (Starter Level) to 2.5 (Level 6). Because we say that lower scores imply more difficulty in vocabulary, we can conclude that vocabularies become more difficult as the levels go higher.

3. Analyses Using Cobuild Wordlist

As mentioned in Section 2 the Collins Cobuild wordlists are based on *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2001). This wordlist has 5 frequency rankings, and the maximum score that a given text can get is 5.0. Figure 4 shows the analysis results of each level of books in terms of percentage of Cobuild Wordlist.

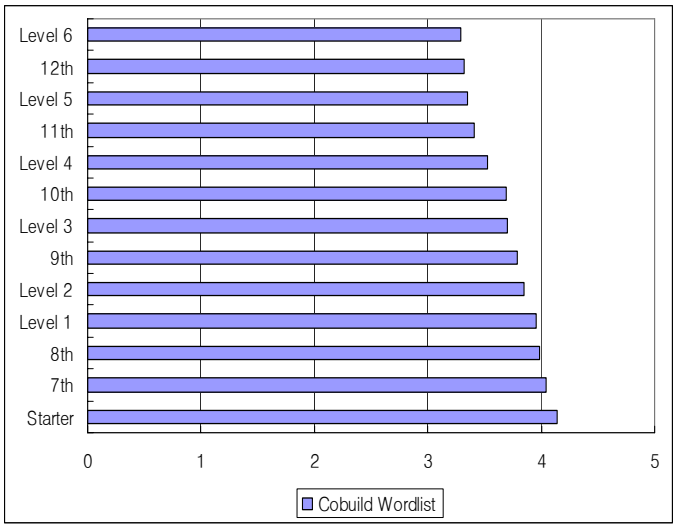
FIGURE 4
Distributions of Basic Vocabulary (%)



As shown in Figure 4, the percentage that Basic Vocabulary occupies in each level of the Oxford Bookworm Library series fluctuates from 85.5% to 91.5%.

Figure 5 shows the results of difficulty analyses with Cobuild Wordlist. Like Basic Vocabulary Wordlist, the lower value the book has, the more difficult the vocabulary is. In these analyses, we also analyzed 60 middle and high school textbooks in order to compare the difficulty levels of vocabulary in these textbooks and those of Oxford Bookworm Library booklets. As you can find in this chart, the difficulty scores continuously decreases, from 4.2 (Starter Level) to 3.4 (Level 6). Because we say that lower scores imply more difficulty in vocabulary, we can conclude that vocabularies become more difficult as the levels go higher. We can also find that the booklets in the Starter Level have easier vocabulary than those in 7th grade textbooks and that the booklets in the Level 6 have more difficult vocabulary than those in 12th grade textbooks.

FIGURE 5
Results of Difficulty Level Analyses Using the Cobuild Wordlist



IV. Conclusion

In this paper, we compiled a fairy tale corpus using 21 booklets in Oxford Bookworm Library series and measured the difficulty level of vocabulary using Basic Vocabulary Wordlist and Cobuild Wordlist. Through the analyses, we found that the difficulty levels of these books have a wide range from below 7th grade textbooks to over 12th grade textbooks.

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Gyu-hyung Lee
Dept. of English Language & Literature
Hannam University
Phone: (042) 629-7320
e-Mail: jjtoric@yahoo.co.kr

Ha-ung Kim
Department of Chinese Language
Woosong University
Phone: (042) 629-6630
e-Mail: tankkh@hanmail.net

Yong-hun Lee
Dept. of English Language & Literature
Phone: (042) 821-5331
e-Mail: yleeuiuc@hanmail.net

Biodata
Gyu-hyung Lee is a graduate student of Hannam University, Ha-ung Kim is an instructor of Woosong University, and Yong-hun Lee is an instructor of Chungnam National University.

From nonparticipation to participation: Role of teacher in EFL college students' class participation

Hoe Kyeung Kim, Ph.D. (Cleveland State University)
Soyoung Lee, Ph.D. (Ewha Womans University)

I. Introduction

There has been discussion on East Asian students' class participation and the impact of their culture of learning. Lack of Asian students' oral participation in language classrooms is often regarded as a result of their cultural trait (Jones, 1999; Sato, 1982; Song, 1994) and culture of learning (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006). In a sociocultural perspective, class participation involves various factors and teachers play a key role to induce student participation (Morita, 2004). To promote reticent EFL students' oral participation, it is significant to understand how teachers support students' class participation.

II. Background of Literature

Although speaking L2 is a challenge for most nonnative speakers (e.g., Edstrom, 2005), lack of Asian L2 learners' oral participation has been mostly interpreted as part of their culture. Their cultural notions regarding face saving and teacher authority have been discussed to interpret these L2 students' reticence in class participation (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; Singh, 1995). The avoidance of making mistakes in front of other peers and the fear of losing faces contributes to the lack of their participation (Tsui, 1996). Other factors, such as Asian L2 learners' backgrounds of passive participations and teacher-fronted classrooms, where the teacher knows everything and dominates most of class talks, are linked to their reticence (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; Tsou, 2005). Jin and Cortazzi (2006) describe their reserved participation as a result of Chinese culture of learning reflecting Confucian way of learning and current foreign language practices in China. As Cheng (2000) point out, however, this somewhat stereotypical perception regarding Asian L2 learners' participation needs to be revisited. This over-generalized viewpoint toward Asian learners does neither factor in differences in learner motivation and personality nor provide a pedagogical approach that is needed for classroom teachers to foster these students' academic participation.

There are few studies (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006; Song, 1994; Tsou, 2005) suggesting ways to improve Asian L2 students' oral participation, however; they have perceived class participations as an individual language act in L2 language learning context, rather than a socially constructed language behavior. This sociocultural approach is particularly important to understand the dynamic of EFL classroom where English is a foreign language. For a full understanding of Asian L2 learners' reticence and its contextual variables, there is a need for exploring learners' oral participation in-depth from a sociocultural viewpoint.

It is crucial to understand L2 learners' learning experiences as social, cultural, and linguistic activities. Language socialization of L2 learners entails a complex process of negotiating their identities, cultures, and power relations (Morita, 2004). Thus, the goal of language teachers' instruction should not be limited to improving L2 learners' linguistic competence, but include being a competent participant in academic socialization. Learning and teaching were a co-constructed process among students (Vygotsky, 1978). To accomplish this, it is equally important that classroom teachers are aware of their role in student participation. In Morita's (2004) study, six Japanese female graduate students behaved differently with different instructors. Each student was positioning differently; either completely withdrawing from the class discussions, seeking an instructor's support, creating a positive identity, or remaining in the peripheral role within the classroom.

Recent studies unveil the strong relations between learner agency and nonparticipation in classroom settings (Graham, 2006; Norton, 2001). Graham (2006) reports that one of the reasons for L2 learners' not participating in group discussion is due to a selection of reading materials. Teacher's use of children's book in a reading class threatens adult L2 learners' identity and makes them feel inferior.

Arguably, the reasons behind L2 learners' reticence are context-specific (Cheng, 2000; Morita, 2004) and related to situated nature of identity construction (Norton, 2001; Pavlenko, 2003).

It is undeniable about the importance of empowering L2 learners in fostering their participation and the role of teachers in classroom discussions. The study by Morita (2004) supports the significant role of instructors in encouraging L2 learners' language socialization and redistributing power among the students in class. Given the fact that language socialization is a process of building competence and constructing knowledge, L2 learners need to be empowered in the process of participating in classroom discussions. The role of teachers needs to be discussed further in relation with empowering L2 learners in academic discourse socialization and building competence and constructing knowledge.

III. Method

A case study methodology was employed for an in-depth understanding of class dynamics among four instructors' cases. The purpose of this study was to investigate how native and nonnative teachers perceived EFL students' class participation and how these teachers facilitated their students' participation.

The participants were four English instructors working at one of the women's universities in Seoul, Korea. They were two female and two male instructors. Their ages ranged from late 20s to late 40s. Two instructors were native speakers of English and the other two instructors were nonnative speakers of English. Familiarity with the Korean culture varied from a nonnative speaker who was brought up in Korea, a native speaker who has married a Korean and has been involved in the culture for over 15 years, a nonnative speaker who has learned the Korean language while living in Korea for 10 years and earnestly tries to participate in the culture, and a native teacher who has been teaching in Korea for about 3years.

The courses that they taught were Essential English targeted towards intermediate groups and College English targeted towards higher intermediate groups. All students were freshmen from the College of Humanities, College of Social Sciences, and the College of Engineering.

The data consisted of individual interviews with the instructors, follow-up classroom observations, and interviews with focus groups of students. The primary data consisted of audio-taped interviews with the instructors and videotaped classroom observations. Each instructor was interviewed 30-45 minutes three times and their classrooms were observed three times. The secondary data were informal talks with their students. The focus groups of students were interviewed for 30 minutes.

IV. Findings

The preliminary finding suggested that teachers' understanding of students' culture and their use of authentic communication facilitated class participation and promoted student engagement. Teachers who are familiar with their students' culture of learning seem to have built more structure in the classrooms, repeated less of their instructions, and generally took less time to communicate and reach goals.

In classes where the teacher was more confident of students' background, more power is given to students to understand material on their own or even outside of class. There was shared agreement of what was important or had significance. Teachers less familiar with the culture of their students struggled with student participation but showed interest and enthusiasm.

Nonnative teachers showed their familiarity with the experience and processes involved in language learning. Student names were called upon in their original language in nonnative teachers' classes whereas native speakers mixed in English nicknames. While a new name can give a student a more lively and active identity, the learning atmosphere were perceived as not authentic, allowing students to be less responsible for what is being taught. This worked in both ways – some students seemed to be more carefree and lively to participate, however other students seemed to find distance between the teacher and the material being taught.

V. Conclusions

The findings of this study argue that the role of instructor is significant in promoting student participation in class. Based on the data of four language teachers' cases, student participation is situated-specific language behavior and is influenced by contextual variables. Consequently, language teachers should be more aware of their students' culture of learning as well as have a confident grip of the teaching materials.

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Hoe Kyeung Kim, Ph.D.
Cleveland State University
2121 Euclid Ave. RT. 1343
Cleveland OH 44115
Tel: 216-523-7122
Fax: 216-687-5379
h.k.kim64@csuohio.edu

Biodata:
Dr. Hoe Kyeung Kim is an Assistant Professor of TESOL at Cleveland State University, Ohio. Her research interests include teacher education, educational technology, second language acquisition, and culture and identity.

Soyoung Lee, Ph. D.
Ewha Womans University

11-1 Daehyun Dong, Suhdaemun Gu.
Seoul, Korea.
Tel: 82-3277-4490
syounglee@ewha.ac.kr

Biodata:
Dr. Soyoung Lee is a full-time lecturer at the English Program Office at Ewha Womans University in Seoul, Korea. She has been teaching English to university students in Korea for 15 years.
Her research ranges from English literature and film studies.

Variety of Presentation Ideas for your Students

G. Benjamin White (Transworld Institute of Technology)

I. Introduction

Far too often people who are delivering a presentation lack the skills to do it professionally. One of the biggest mistakes seems to come in the use of Power Point. The presenter will either add far too much text to the screen or play with the use of animation that distracts from the presentation. Other problems include giving the presentation to the screen or computer (i.e., not looking at the audience) or in the use of slides that do not fit the presentation being delivered. In addition Power Point has started to effect presentations overall. Far too many people lack the skills necessary to deliver a presentation that is done without a computer. It is therefore important that students learn not only the skills of Power Point, but also how to complete other types of presentations that are possible in their future careers.

The course discussed in this paper and poster was developed with this idea in mind. In order to add variety to the class and make it more interesting the author developed five presentations for each student to complete. The course development came from the teacher's own personal experiences watching and delivering presentations, including a 45 minute presentation for incoming freshman at Iowa State University about the online registrar's system.

In this paper the author uses the phrase Power Point. The author knows that Power Point (or ppt as students like to call it now) is only one of many presentation programs available. The author has chosen to use it since it is the most widely used program for the author's students. It is used to stand for any presentation projected from a computer onto a screen.

II. Presentations

Students are required to complete five presentations over the 18 week course. Two are done alone and three are done in groups. The group work is to help the students learn how to work with other people. For this class each student is able to choose his or her group member(s).

Presentation one

This presentation is worth 10% of the student's final grade. It is a Power Point presentation that is to give them practice using the program. It is a quick five minute presentation where each student introduces his or her family. The topic was chosen since each student has deep knowledge about the topic. This presentation can also be done near the beginning of the course, since it does not require much outside research. Each student must give the author a copy of the presentation (four slides per page). This copy is used to correct English mistakes and to give pointers on the correct Power Point format. The biggest mistakes made by the students while using Power Point is having too much text on the screen and using colors that are difficult to read. The edited presentation is to be used by the students as they prepare for presentation three.

Presentation two

This presentation is worth 15% of the student's final grade. This is the first of three group presentations. This presentation is done in groups of two students. Each group is required to go out and buy a product less than NT$1,000 (US$30, 38,000 won) and "...present it in a way that will make the teacher want to go out and buy the product" (White, 2009). The students are encouraged to find something that the author doesn't have.

To help the groups "sell" the product each group must develop a one page introduction of the product and give it to the teacher. This paper is edited by the teacher to correct English mistakes and to give them ideas of how to make a future one better. This presentation has lead to the author buying some of the products presented. This presentation is a good way for the students to practice the art of selling. This is a very important skill for students to have. It also shows how a presentation is more then just using a computer and a projector. Students are asked questions during the presentation and those answers are used to evaluate the students. In addition the presentation is done in a conference room. This setting gives the students a sense of it being a business presentation. The students are also

expected to dress in a more professional way. The author believes that students must learn the skills that they will use in their professional careers. This includes how one should dress and act during important meetings when they must "sell" their ideas.

Presentation three

This presentation is worth 20% of the student's final grade. It is a Power Point presentation and must be 9 minutes long. Questions are asked at the end of the presentation and similar to presentation two used in the evaluation. Part of a presentation is knowing how to answer questions. Too often presenters are not able to articulate answers to questions. This is a detraction to the presentation. One other aspect of this presentation is that the presenter asks the audience a question from his or her presentation. This is a way to keep the audience (the other students in the course) listening to the presentation as they may be called upon to answer the question.

Students are able to choose any topic in which to complete the presentation. The author in the syllabus gives the students some ideas as to topics. The author also delivers an example of a presentation to help the students.

Presentation four

This presentation is worth 25% of the student's final grade. This is the second of the three group presentations. The groups for this presentation are large (up to 10 students) due to the amount of work necessary to complete the assignment. This presentation has been the most difficult to put together and is continually being updated. The author will discuss the two different presentations he has done along with what he is working on for next year.

In the first three years (2006-2008) the author had the groups create an audio presentation on Touliu City and Yunlin County. This was a 25 minute presentation and was formatted as a travel presentation. Students were required to introduce Transworld Institute of Technology along with restaurants and other spots in the city and county. Students were also encouraged to do interviews.

This year (2009) the author had three groups of students create a 5 minute video presentation of the Department of Applied Foreign Languages at Transworld Institute of Technology. The students were expected to create something that could be used to recruit students for the department. However none of the videos were completed in this way. The author believes that he is to blame as he didn't give enough direction for this assignment. This has lead to another reworking of the assignment.

Next year (2010) the author is planning on having the students do a 5 to 10 minute audio Podcast for a local restaurant that they will need to post to the web. The author will compete an example of the presentation and post it to the web for students to listen to and get ideas. It is similar to the presentation done before in 2006-2008, but is more focused.

Presentation four shows more examples of what is considered a presentation. Having students do audio presentations is advantageous since it required the students to discuss the item deeper as the audience is unable to see it. Also the students are required to speak for a long time in English. In addition when students interview someone it must be in English or translated into English. Translation and interpreting are two very difficult, but beneficially skills for the students to have.

Presentation five

This presentation is worth 20% of the student's final grade. This is the last of the three group presentations. Students work in groups of two (the groups must be different from presentation two). This presentation is a table display of a local restaurant. The students are expected to develop a display that will give the author (and any other individual) all the information about the restaurant. This includes: menus, business cards, pictures and any additional information the students feel is necessary, but they are not allowed to bring food. The groups must have their displays up at least 30 minutes before grading starts. Each member of the class is also given a piece of paper in which to write down which display they like the best. The author goes around and talks with each group about their display. While grading he also talks to them about ways to improve the display.

The author is thinking about changing this presentation for next year (2010) into a poster display on the Department of Applied Foreign Languages. This way the students can hang their work in the hallway for other students to admire. In addition these posters could be used as advertisements for the department in local schools. It also will add variety to the class after four years of table displays.

This presentation is a good one for students who are creative. One week before the grading all displays are pre-evaluated by the author. This way the students are able to make changes and to add

things that will help the presentation. It is also a way to ensure that the students are working on the display at least a week before the final evaluation.

III. Grading and evaluations

90% of each student's grade is tied to his or her presentations. Each presentation is evaluated by the author with comments on what was good and what needs to be improved. The author also gives reasons for the grade. For the first presentation each student evaluates three presentations. These grades and comments by the students are included by the author to assist with giving out the final grades for the presentation. A copy of the form used for the first presentation is below (figure 1). The author gives full permission for other professors and teachers to copy and use the form in his or her classes. This form was used by both the author and the students.

Presentation 1 - Family					
		Good	Ok	Fair	Poor
Name:	Pronounciation				
	Eye Contact				
	Slides.				
Good things from the presentation					
One thing that needs to be improved in the future					
Grade & Reason					
Grade	*YOU MUST WRITE A GRADE (60-100) FOR THE PRESENTATION*				
					Your Name/Number
You need to make sure that you grade is based on the presentation					

Figure 1 – Presentation one evaluation form.

In addition each student's first and second presentations are edited by the author. This is to improve the English writing of each student and is also helpful as the student puts together his or her longer Power Point presentation (presentation three). For presentation four in order to ensure that students who do a lot of work are rewarded and those who do little work are penalized the members of each group evaluated the work done by the other members in the group. This evaluation is used by the author to assign each student's grade for the presentation.

10% of the final grade is class attendance. “Part of delivering a presentation is being in the audience to listen to other people” (White, 2009). The author believes in peer-review and learning. It is helpful for students to watch other presentations. They can see the work of other students and see what things they can use in their future presentations. The class is in English, so being in class is a way for the students to practice their English listening skills.

IV. Conclusion

The author was told by a colleague that the course discussed in this paper and poster is what the department was thinking when the course was created. Others have also commented on how the last presentation is interesting to look at and is something that had never been done before the author taught the course.

The goal of this course is to improve the presentation skills of the students. After the course is finished the author is more critical when grading presentation done by the students since the idea is

for students to build on what they have learned in the past. The author has found that the senior students are much better at giving presentations then the other students in the department. The author has also had students comment on how their individual presentation skills have improved.

The author invites all individuals to contact him if they have any questions or comments or would like any items from the class (e.g., syllabus, evaluation forms). The author believes that as educators we should work cooperatively to improve the learning of all our students.

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G. Benjamin White
Department of Applied Foreign Languages
Transworld Institute of Technology
Phone: +886-5-537-0988 ext. 8314
Email: whitegben@yahoo.com (best way to contact)

Biodata

G. Benjamin White has been teaching in Taiwan since early 2004. He is currently an English lecturer in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages at Transworld Institute of Technology where he teaches a variety of classes including English Presentation and International Affairs. Benjamin has taught students from elementary to graduate school in Taiwan. He has an undergraduate degree in history from Bemidji State University (Minnesota) and a graduate degree in higher education from Iowa State University.

The Effect of Lexical Modification on Korean Learners' English Listening Comprehension

Eunha Hwang (Korea University)

I. Introduction

Since 2000, English education in Korea has been trending toward teaching English through English (Moon, 2004; Park, 2005). The new government inaugurated in 2008 is framing a policy strongly encouraging Teaching English Through English (TETE) in classrooms (Ko, 2008) for the benefit of students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) by providing additional opportunities to listen and speak their target language.

TETE, however, has been challenged due to unpreparedness on the parts of teachers and students (Ko, 2008; Lee, 2007; Moon & Lee, 2002). For teachers, the ability to offer comprehensible oral input (speaking ability) remains among of the principle classroom issues in TETE, since comprehension of input in language learning is pivotal (Krashen, 1985). In EFL setting such as Korea, 'teacher talk' is a valuable source of input (Cullen, 1998), and it usually features "the use of speech modifications, hesitations, and rephrasing in the teachers' own talk (p. 182)". It can be assumed that these features of teacher talk spring from efforts by teachers to lead students to comprehend content. Accordingly, research into input modification would be conducive in determining keys to the provision of increasingly comprehensible input.

To this end, research on input modification has been actively conducted. Yano et al. (1994), for instance, has examined the effect of input modification on reading comprehension and revealed that input elaboration had a positive influence on learners' understanding. Based on this study, Oh (2001) designed a similar investigation, but included proficiency as a separate factor. Similar to Yano et al., Oh argued that elaborated input did benefit students more than did simplified or unmodified input. As for the effect of modified input on listening comprehension, Chiang and Dunkel (1992), Lee and Kim (2006), and Blau (1990) have all published research. The first two studies established that elaboration is helpful in increasing learners' comprehension, while Blau's study discovered that pausing resulted in improvement of listening comprehension.

Since little effort has been invested in investigating exactly which particular types of modifications actually affect learners' comprehension (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992), and a number of aspects have been simultaneously modified, it seems appropriate to next focus on specific features. In this context, this study was intended to offer teachers suggestions on input modification by examining the effect of lexical modification on Korean learners' English listening comprehension.

II. Method

1. Subjects

Seventy Korean university students (16 male and 54 female) drawn from the Departments of Special Education, Early Childhood Education, and Physical Education at a university located in the southern part of Korea were selected for this study. Their ages ranged from 18 to 25 (M = 19.23 years old) at the time of participation in the study. All of the students, with the exception of one who had completed six years of public education, had completed 10 years of English education primarily mediated in Korean. The English listening proficiency of the subjects was evaluated by a TOEIC-like test (LT1) and, since the mean score was 38.23 out of 100, it can be considered to be at the beginner level. For this study, students were randomly assigned to one of three experimental groups subsequent to the LT1. Each group took only one type of listening tests comprised of (a) baseline, (b) simplified, or (c) elaborated listening passages. There were no significant group differences $\{F(2, 67), p > .05\}$ in their listening scores on the LT1.

2. Materials

Passage modification. Three sets of listening passages were prepared: baseline, simplified, and elaborated version. For the baseline set, eight passages were selected from *ETS TOIEC TEST* (2006). Considering the typical English classroom in Korea where a teacher speaks and students listen, listening texts were chosen from Part 4 of the Listening Section of the TOEIC test in which test takers listen to a short talk given by one speaker and answer three comprehension questions. The simplified and elaborated passages were based on this baseline text.

First, for the simplified listening passages, the researcher, in consultation with a native speaker of English, altered difficult vocabulary in the baseline text into easier, simpler, or more frequently used words or terms. The criterion for difficulty of vocabulary was set according to a word list sponsored by the 7th National Curriculum that is intended to have been mastered by high school graduation. Thus, only words not present on this list were simplified. Second, for the elaborated listening passages, the vocabulary that was selected for adaptation in the simplified passages again became the target for modification. The researcher and the native speaker included additional information to the baseline passages through providing examples, synonyms, or rephrasing, all using words listed in the 7th National Curriculum.

Listening test. The three sets of listening passages were recorded by a native speaker of English. Each version of the listening test (LT2) consisted of eight passages with three comprehension questions each, lasting approximately 15 minutes. Thus, the maximum score for the test was 24. Subjects were provided with multiple-choice type comprehension questions and an answer sheet. Test sheets were the identical for all three groups, while each group listened to one of the three versions of LT2. Vocabulary in the test sheet was also adapted to remain within the list of 7th National Curriculum word list to prevent students' comprehension being hindered by unknown words.

III. Result and Discussion

As summarized in Table 1, subjects' listening comprehension scores on the LT2 were quite low. The mean score was 8.76 out of 24, with 2 as the lowest and 17 as the highest. As for the mean score by group, the group listening to simplified texts received the highest score, followed by the elaborated and then the baseline group. That is to say, subjects who listened to the modified (simplified or elaborated) passages obtained higher scores than those who listened to the unmodified versions. In order to examine the significance of group differences, ANOVA was computed. It revealed that there existed strong group differences in the LT2 scores as indicated in Table 2 ($p < .05$). Post hoc LSD showed that statistically significant group differences appeared between the baseline and simplified groups, but not other group combinations. In other words, simplified listening input led to significant improvement of subjects' comprehension when compared to unmodified input. The differences between the baseline and elaborated or the simplified and elaborated were not statistically significant.

TABLE 1
Subjects' Mean Score on LT2

Group	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Baseline	22	7.64	2.42
Simplified	23	9.78	2.73
Elaborated	25	8.80	2.60
Total	70	8.76	2.69

TABLE 5
Analysis of Variance for Subjects' Mean Score on LT2

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Between Groups	51.87	2	25.93	3.87	.03
Within Groups	449.00	67	6.70		
Total	500.87	69			

Subjects' mean score on the LT2 was roughly 37% out of 100. This low performance can be attributed to infrequent opportunities for listening instruction or for receiving oral input (Saville-Troike, 2006) since reading comprehension scores for the identical students collected at the beginning of the semester were approximately 60% out of 100. Considering the subjects' underdeveloped listening proficiency and the limited extent of modification (only limited at the lexical level), the results of this study revealing group differences were unexpected.

As for the effect of lexical modification on learners' English listening comprehension, subjects performed better at understanding modified passages. This outcome of the current study corresponds to previous studies. In general, the effect of input modification has been widely accepted (Blau, 1990; Chiang & Dunkel 1992; Lee & Kim, 2006; Oh, 2001; Yano et al. 1994), although inconsistency remains with respect to the types of modification and the measures used. However, in this study input elaboration did not impact learners' comprehension sufficiently to trigger significant differences compared to simplified texts. This result contradicts studies conducted by Oh (2001) and Yano et al. (1994) who argued that the effect of elaborated input outperformed that of simplified input when examining learners' reading comprehension. In addition, this current study failed to support Blau's (1990) study, which asserted that simplification did not positively affect learners' listening comprehension.

It is assumed that learners' proficiency level led to the conflicting results, as Chiang and Dunkel (1992) explained that low level learners did not benefit from redundant input, and distinct types of modification would be required for differently proficient learners. It seems that beginner learners may be unable to fully take advantage of additional time to process information when provided with elaborated input, because, in part, their comprehension could be hindered by facing longer passages. Rather, they tend to resort to sporadic vocabulary they can grasp. In sum, this study implies that simplified input can indeed benefit subjects' listening comprehension, despite that input simplification has been criticized in the literature.

However, it should be noted that this study does not argue comprehension per se is absolutely needed in language learning, but rather argues that understanding input is a starting point for successful language learning, as Pica (1994) claimed that "comprehension is a major contributor to L2 learning (p. 55)". Therefore, improving students' comprehension through modified input is not the sole requirement facing language teachers. Furthermore, this study concentrates on lexical modification because it aims to investigate the effect of specific modifications rather than suggesting that vocabulary modification alone is capable of advancing learners' comprehension.

IV. Conclusion and Implications

The findings of this study support the concept that input modification is a contributing factor in promoting learner comprehension. Moreover, it proves the effect of lexical modification on comprehension and suggests that simplification results in improving learner listening comprehension. This study, although limited, implies the possibility of fostering beginner level learners' understanding of what is being said by simply adjusting vocabulary to a comprehensible point. Therefore, lexical simplification can be regarded as one method for assisting beginners in TETE classrooms in Korea; using frequent and simpler vocabulary can aid learners' comprehension. In addition, different modification steps should be taken according to the students' level, since different groups of learners benefit from distinct input modification.

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Eunha Hwang
Department of English Language and Literature
Korea University
Phone: +82-2-3290-1980
Email: fuga95@korea. ac.kr

Biodata
Eunha Hwang is a doctoral student in the Department of English Language and Literature at Korea University, majoring in Applied Linguistics and English Education. She has been teaching English in Korea for seven years. Her research areas include second language acquisition, computer-assisted language learning, and syntax.

Developing Materials Using Onomatopoeic Expressions to Facilitate Native-like language use

Juhyeon Park (International Graduate School of English)
Jiho Park (International Graduate School of English)

One type of words that the learners of English have most difficulty in locating in a dictionary is an onomatopoeic or mimetic word. Finding the exact Korean words for those expressions and coming up with English expression for a specific sound are not an easy job either.

Having a control over these words can be an amazing asset for an EFL learner in the sense that it helps students produce more expressive language. It is hard to find an EFL speaker who can use these expressions freely when describing a sound or an action. Often they would end up using the expression from their native language to describe a sound, instead of using the authentic expression from English. One of the reasons for this is that EFL students are exposed to somewhat dry or oversimplified reading materials for their reading. Acquiring these expressions is one of the benefits of extensive reading, but not everyone can do the extensive reading due to time and money constraints.

Therefore, it is necessary to develop a material that is designed to facilitate the native-like language use of English through using onomatopoeic or mimetic words. This seems like one area that is yet to be developed in Korea.

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Park,Juheyon
Department of English Material Development
International Graduate School of English
010-3587-6514
jaypark@igse.ac.kr

Biodata
Juhyeon Park is currently a student at the department of English Materials Development at IGSE. She worked for an elementary school for 4 years as an English teacher. Her interests are storytelling, vocabulary, and developing materials to guide reading. She can be contacted at jaypark@igse.ac.kr .

Park,Jiho
Department of English Material Development
International Graduate School of English
011-9011-4471
failan23@igse.ac.kr

Biodata
Park, Jiho is currently an English Materials Development student at IGSE and works to develop vocabulary learning website. He worked for a high school as an English teacher for three years. His interests are grading vocabulary levels and corpus use for English teachers and learners. He can be contacted at failan23@igse.ac.kr.

A Critical Review of Online EBS English Courses

Han-Na Lee (Chung-Ang University)

As a public educational broadcasting service, EBS has a lot of learning programs on air (e.g. TV, radio, etc.) and on the internet. EBS provides four different web sites for online English courses through internet. They are ‘www.ebs.co.kr’, ‘www.ebslang.co.kr’, ‘www.ebsi.co.kr’, and ‘www.ebse.co.kr’, and all 4 sites has taken on the different characters respectively, and a large number of learners use four websites on their own purposes.

The purpose of this material is to investigate the difference among 4 EBS websites, and to analyze English courses of the 4 websites on the several basis (e.g. age, four skills, etc.). According to the results, this material focuses on the problems of EBS online English courses and try to find the way of problems. This material is meaningful to understand EBS e-learning courses from the critical point of view.

The Effect of Background Knowledge on EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

Pei-shi Weng (National Chiayi University)

I. Introduction

Every reading material requires its own background knowledge. Different background knowledge would influence students' reading comprehension. Although most researchers agree on the importance of background knowledge in reading comprehension, there are still lots of problems. For the role of background knowledge at different proficiency levels, a controversial situation existed in studies. Raham and Bisanz (1986) believed that poor readers' schema do not develop as well as or efficiently used as good readers. They believed that the role of background knowledge is more crucial in good readers than in poor readers. However, in Hudson (1982) and Carrell (1984)'s studies, they both suggested that there is no significant background effect on learners' reading comprehension in advanced readers. As a result, the role of background at readers with different proficiency levels seems to become an unsolved problem.

Based on above different suggestions and problems, this study chose participants with wider range of language proficiency levels to find out background effect on those participants with different language proficiency levels. In the following, there are two basic research questions of this study.

1. Is there any significant difference between learners' comprehension of culture familiar and culture unfamiliar texts at different language proficiency levels?
2.
3. Is there any significant difference between learners' comprehension of topic familiar and topic unfamiliar texts at different language proficiency levels?

II. Participants

Six classes of freshmen in National Chiayi University were involved in this study. Three classes came from College of Humanity and Art, and the other three classes came from College of Science. The division of three language proficiency levels—upper-intermediate (A), intermediate (B), and low-intermediate (C) were based on their results in the institutional General English Proficiency Test, Thus, there were 278 participants involved in this study.

Based on my assumptions about background knowledge, I supposed that all participants were familiar with Chinese culture. Also, participants of College of Humanity and Art were familiar with readings of social science, and participants of College of Science were familiar with readings of natural science. Hence, participants whose familiarity ratings did not correspond to my assumption were eliminated. Thus, after the elimination, 201 freshmen became the participants.

III. Instruments

The researcher chose reading texts of four different backgrounds: culture familiar, culture unfamiliar, topic familiar and topic unfamiliar texts as the materials. Those reading texts came from practice reading comprehension tests of upper-intermediate level in General English Proficiency Test in Taiwan (Lai, 2003; Black and Su, 2005). For culture familiar text, it was an introduction of Chinese characters. The culture unfamiliar text was about Rio carnivals. A biological text was used as a topic familiar text for participants from College of Science and as a topic unfamiliar text for participants from College of Humanity and Art. Also, a sociological text was used as a topic familiar text for participants from College of Humanity and Art and as a topic unfamiliar text for participants from College of Science.

IV. Results and discussion

Culture familiarity and language proficiency levels

A paired-sample t-test was used to investigate the effect of culture familiarity on participants with different language proficiency levels.

The results indicated the effect of culture familiarity on reading comprehension with participants of different language proficiency levels. Culture familiarity did not affect the reading comprehension ($t=-1.08$, $p>.05$) at Level A. Then at Level B, participants performed better on the culture familiar reading ($t=3.75$, $p=.00$). Also participants performed significantly better on the culture familiar reading ($t=3.09$, $p=.00$) at Level C. From the results, they indicated that culture familiarity was important for participants with intermediate (Level B) and low-intermediate (Level C) language proficiency levels.

From the results, I found that culture familiarity is more important for participants at lower language proficiency level than participants at higher language proficiency levels. In this study, participants at higher language proficiency level had enough linguistic knowledge so that their linguistic knowledge can overcome the lack of background knowledge. Thus, culture familiarity was not detectable in participants at higher language proficiency levels.

On the other hand, because of the lack of linguistic knowledge, participants at lower language proficiency level still needed background knowledge to help them comprehend the reading texts. As a result, the effect of culture familiarity is detectable in participants at lower language proficiency levels.

Topic familiarity and language proficiency levels

A Two-way ANOVA was used to examine the effect of topic familiarity and language proficiency levels on reading comprehension. The results of a two-way ANOVA showed that language proficiency level and topic familiarity influenced reading comprehension. Participants got higher grades in their topic familiar readings than topic unfamiliar readings. Also, language proficiency levels influenced participants reading comprehension. Participants of Level A (upper-intermediate level) got better grades than participants of Level B (intermediate) and Level C (low-intermediate levels) ($F=18.83$, $p=.00$) in *Birds*. In addition, participants of Level A (upper-intermediate level) also got better grades than participants of Level B (intermediate) and Level C (low-intermediate levels) ($F=29.59$, $p=.00$) in *Taboos*. Also, the researcher detected the cross effect between language proficiency level and topic familiarity. The researcher found that in *Birds*, there was cross effect between language proficiency level and topic familiarity ($F=14.43$, $p=.00$). On the contrary in *Taboos*, there was no cross effect between language proficiency level and topic familiarity ($F=1.45$, $p=.32$). The results indicated that language proficiency level and topic familiarity affected reading comprehension, but when they interacted, they did not influence reading comprehension.

This finding partly supported Gagne, Bell, Weidenmann and Yarbrough (1980)'s and Swaffar's (1988) studies. They all proposed that compared with unfamiliar texts, familiar texts were learned faster and remembered better. But, in their studies, they did not take language proficiency level into consideration. In my study, the results were a little different from the previous studies. I found that topic familiarity was more important in participants at lower language proficiency levels.

V. Conclusion

As EFL teachers, our task is to help learners build appropriate background knowledge, and teach them that reading is a process of making good use of prior knowledge to build new knowledge. Only if teachers try to take background knowledge into consideration during the teaching processes, will learners' reading comprehension be improved.

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Weng, Pei-shi
Graduate Program of Foreign Languages
National Chiayi University
Phone: 09336802626
Email: s0941064@mail.ncyu.edu.tw

Biodata

2009.9~ Student of Doctoral Program of English in Tamkang University, Taiwan

2008-2009 Part-time lecturer of National Chiayi University

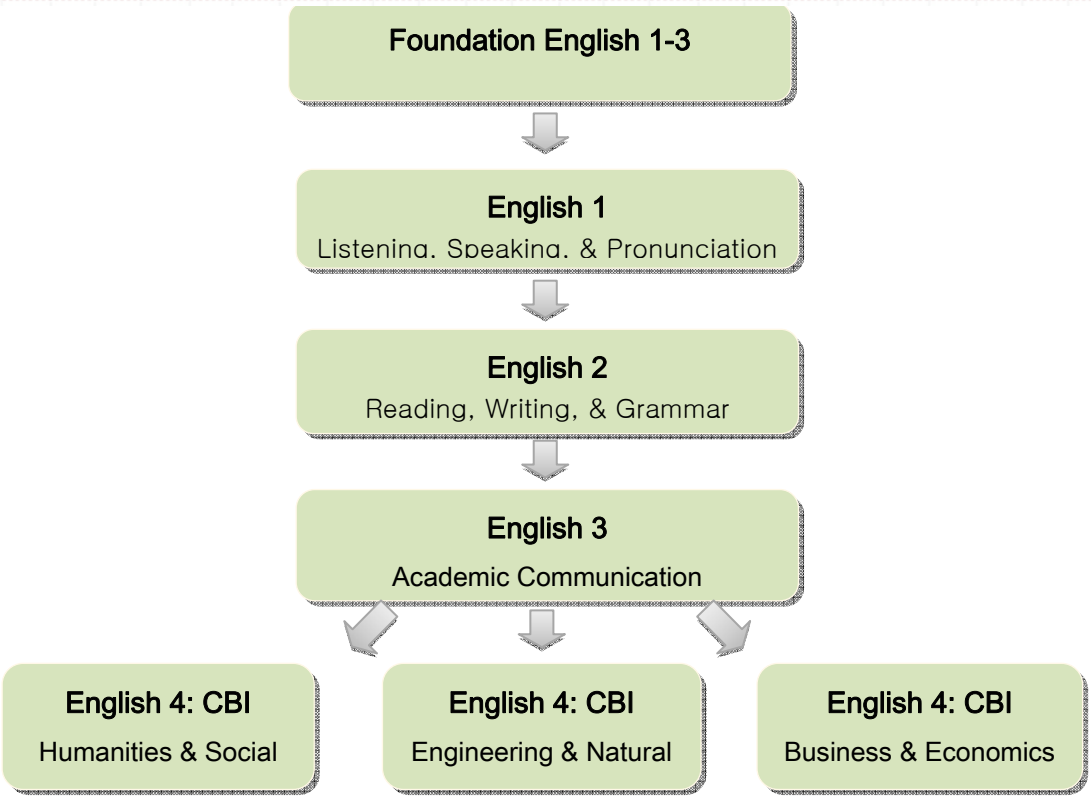
Implementing the Adjunct CBI Model in Korean Universities

Isaiah WonHo Yoo (Sogang University)
Ander McCarthy (Sogang University)
Paul Elliget Suh (Sogang University)

Having begun its life as an immersion program in elementary school to teach French to Anglophones in Montreal, Canada, in 1965 (Snow, 2001), Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is now widely used at the university level in a number of countries in the world, e.g. Japan, Thailand, and Israel (Crandall & Kaufman, 2002). Of the three canonical models of CBI that can be implemented at the university level, i.e. theme-based, sheltered, and adjunct (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 2003), the adjunct model is the most difficult to implement logistically because of the fact that it requires collaboration between the content professor and the language instructor. Done properly, however, the adjunct model can provide the students with the most benefit as language and content are taught by their respective experts, unlike the theme-based model and the sheltered model, in which both language and content are usually taught by a language instructor and a content professor, respectively.

After a brief overview of these three different models of CBI, the panel discussion will explore in detail the merits and demerits of the adjunct CBI model and the issues involved in its successful implementation in Korean universities. The panel will consist of three presentations by the language instructors who have taught a CBI course adjuncted to their respective field of specialty: linguistics, physics, and economics. The first presenter will begin by describing the administrative aspects of the project: (a) how the existing curriculum of the General English Education Program at Sogang University was modified to incorporate adjunct CBI courses, as shown in the flowchart below, (b) what factors were taken into consideration in choosing the content courses, (c) and how the information about the new adjunct CBI courses was disseminated to prospective students. By sharing with the audience members various lesson plans, activities, and quizzes used in the three CBI courses, the rest of the panel discussion will be devoted to discussing in detail how each of these CBI courses was conducted to ensure that the students would get the language instruction necessary to do well in their content courses.

General English Education Program at Sogang University



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Isaiah WonHo Yoo (organizer)
Department of English
Sogang University
Phone: 02-705-8340
Email: iyoo@sogang.ac.kr

Biodata

Isaiah WonHo Yoo is Assistant Professor in the Department of English at Sogang University, where he teaches graduate-level applied linguistics/TESOL courses and undergraduate-level EFL courses. After an undergraduate psychology education at UC Berkeley, he earned a Ph.D. in applied linguistics from UCLA and taught EAP for three years at MIT. His primary research focuses on how corpus linguistics informs language pedagogy and how definiteness is expressed in English and other languages such as Korean, Japanese, and Chinese.

Teaching Writing to English Language Learners

The Agenda for our 90-minute group presentation is as follows:

1. Using Thinking Maps to Support Student Writing (20 minutes)
   1st Presenter: Suzie K. Oh (Los Angeles Unified School District, Principal)
   (California State University System, Adjunct Professor)

2. Teaching English Language to English Language Learners (20 minutes)
   2nd Presenter: Anna E.L. Chee. (California State University, Los Angeles, Adjunct Professor)

3. The Personal Statement in the University Application Process (20 minutes)
   3rd Presenter: John Regan, Ed.D. (Seoul Global High School, College Counselor)

4. Follow-up Question and Answer ("Q & A") Session (30 minutes)

Using Thinking Maps to Support Student Writing

Suzie K. Oh, Ed.D.
(Los Angeles Unified School District)

I. Introduction

This presentation is designed to introduce participants to the various *Thinking Maps*, their specific uses, and how to incorporate them into English language development lessons to support student writing. Participants will create and utilize *Thinking Maps* to record their thought processes. The format of the presentation includes the following: a. an ice-breaker activity with significant quotes on teaching, b. Theory and Research on Thinking Maps, c. a demonstration of Thinking Map with Illustrations, and d. a hands-on activity by presentation participants.

This presentation will share how I, as a principal and instructional leader, was able to successfully implement *Thinking Maps*, which were invented by David Hyerle (1995). Participants will actually process a variety of *Thinking Maps* that support the fundamental thinking processes. They will be able to utilize *Thinking Maps* for "pre-writing" activities at all levels of instruction. *Thinking Maps* support interactive teaching and learning which facilitates student-centered, cooperative learning and are supported by brain-based learning; further, they integrate thinking skills and mapping techniques. *Thinking Maps* use basic mental operations involved in perceiving, processing and evaluating information (Hyerle, 1995).

II. Food for Thought

Quote 1: "Better learning will come not so much from finding better ways for the teacher to instruct, but from giving the learner better opportunities to construct."

Quote 2: "Learning is social, emotional and interactive." (Vygotsky)

Quote 3:"Learning happens when your head, hands and heart are involved."

III. Theory and Reasoning on Thinking Maps

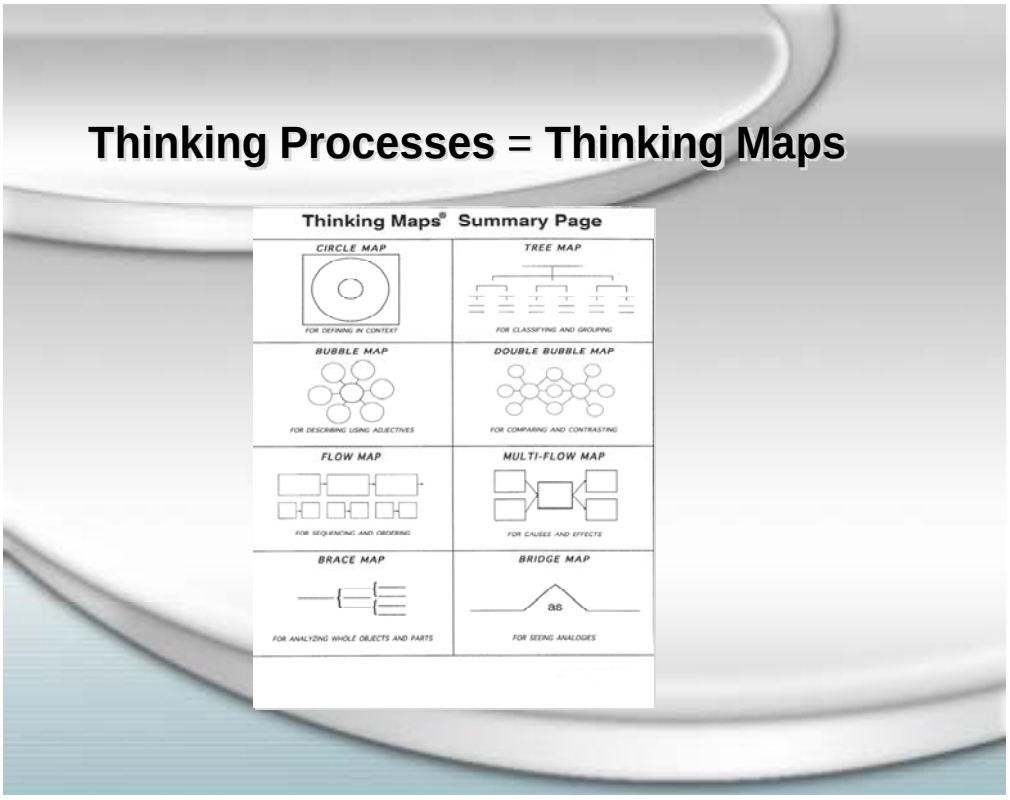
1. *Thinking Maps* are supported by Brain Research (Brain-Based Learning)
1.1 Brain is a pattern- seeker
1.2 Brain is a meaning-maker (meaningful learning)
1.3 Brain likes to make connections
(Transfer across disciplines - Interdisciplinary Approach)

2. *Thinking Maps* support interactive teaching and learning (student-centered, cooperative learning and school-wide communication)

3. *Thinking Maps* integrate thinking skills and mapping techniques. These techniques help students become better learners as they develop life-long learning skills that help them to study.

4. *Thinking Maps* use basic mental operations involved in perceiving, processing and evaluating information. They describe, classify, and sequence.

IV. Demonstration of Thinking Maps *(refer to below illustration)*



VI. Demonstration and Hands-On Activity

VII. Reflection

1. What have you learned?
2. How can you apply *Thinking Maps* into your instruction?

Website Links: www.thinkingmaps.com

www.nhcs.k12.nc.us/htree/Curriculum/ThinkingMaps

Suzie K. Oh, Ed.D.
Principal, Los Angeles Unified School District
Adjunct Professor, California State University, Los Angeles
Sko1212@aol.com
Drsuzieoh@gmail.com

Teaching Academic English to English Language Learners

Anna E.L Chee, Ph.D.
(California State University, Los Angeles)

I. Introduction

This presentation focuses on instructional strategy on teaching of grammar for the acquisition of academic English Discourses in context of reading comprehension, note-taking skills, and writing for teaching. This instructional approach is supported by four major conceptual principles on the relationships between grammar and academic literacy: a. that acquisition of Discourses of academic English is needed for the development of academic literacy which is a necessity for successful high school graduation and completion of college, b. that acquisition and development of Discourses of academic English and literacy require the knowledge of syntax or grammar beyond the level of simple sentence, c. that grammar carries meaning and therefore, knowledge of grammar plays a significant role in comprehension, and d. that grammar knowledge is necessary in writing and revising.

Rather than being monolithic, all language is made up of diverse Discourses (Bakhtin, 1994; Gee, 1990/1991). Discourses are made up of a set of linguistic elements, but also ways of speaking and behaving and a set of values, attitudes, and beliefs. Use of a Discourse also enacts and expresses a certain identity that inheres in the Discourse (Gee, 1990/1991). In a society, there are Discourses of academic disciplines, such as history or philosophy, Discourses of professional fields, such as medicine, law, or education, and Discourses of ethnic or sub-social groups, such as youth groups or golfers. Humans learn Discourses by becoming a member of a Discourse group and by being scaffolded in interaction with those in the group who are more proficient in the Discourse. By being in the Discourse group, learners also have opportunities to hear models of language input, to form, test, revise, and practice hypothesis about language patterns (Chomsky, 1965; Krashen, 1985; Gee, 1990/1991).

Academic English is a Discourse that includes a set of values, beliefs, and attitudes about ways of presenting knowledge that manifest those inside the academia, which many English learners may not share or possess (Lillis, 2001). One important aspect of the Discourse of academic English is the use of “standard” English with correct grammar. Whether English is a second or a foreign language, learning/acquiring academic English is the most advanced and cognitively demanding task for English learners. Graduating from high school and entering and succeeding in institutions of higher education necessitate that English learners can do academic reading, writing, speaking, and listening at the college level. Academic literacy influences or even determines whether English language learners are able to keep pace with large amounts of reading and writing and their capacities to pass gate-keeping examinations and assignments. Without academic literacy, they are at greater risk of dropping out (Benesch, 2001).

Academic literacy involves being able to manipulate and utilize various academic discourses in multiple circumstances, such as the ability to comprehend and take notes from texts with complex text and sentence structures and the ability to develop, organize, and write a coherent essay with

supporting evidence using various sentence structures including those with lengthy phrases and clauses.

In order to ensure that students with a high school diploma possess grade level competency in reading, writing, and mathematics, most of states in the U.S. now require some type of a high school exit examination. In California, there is the California High School Exit Examination (CAHSEE), which is organized into two parts, English/language arts and math. The English/Language arts part assesses state content standards through grade ten. In reading, vocabulary, decoding, comprehension, and analysis of information and literary texts are assessed. In writing, students are asked to produce essays in narration, exposition, persuasion, and/or description, each of which should be of about 1,500 words. In these essays, demonstration of a command of "standard" English, and abilities to do research, organize, and revise in developing a coherent essay are assessed.

Reading comprehension and writing are interrelated. Writers use ideas from reading and personal experiences. Grammar carries meaning and grammar knowledge facilitates comprehension, and lack of it hinders full understanding of text. Most English learners, even those with "high" or "advanced" level of English language proficiency, do not possess adequate knowledge of the English grammar at an advanced level, those grammar patterns that are used in content subject text books in higher grades. Meaning of a sentence is not only provided by the semantic meanings carried by words, but also in grammar patterns used. For example, consider the function and meaning of the word, "park" in the two sentences, "Susan went to park" and "Susan went to the park." In the first sentence, the word, "park" is part of an infinitive, "to park," and serves as an adverb which modifies the main verb, "went," and answers the question, *Why did Susan go?* On the other hand, in the second sentence, the phrase, "to the park" is a prepositional phrase, and the word, "park" is an object of a preposition, a noun that answers the question, *Where did Susan go?* Or consider (I will include examples from a secondary level science text, history text, and a literature or math text.).

Instruction in grammar is also grounded in research from writing instruction. Two major theoretical notions that guide writing instruction include the following: first, that writers or students write better when they write from plenty rather than scarcity, and second, that writing is a recursive process through the stages of writing, including multiple revisions (Atwell, 1998; Calkins, 1986/1994). Writing tasks in secondary schools and college require that students write expository, persuasive, descriptive, and narrative pieces based on evidence collected through reading academic texts and personal experiences. In order to comprehend and take notes from complex content subject texts that use various complex and compound sentence structures and syntactic patterns, knowledge in grammar is a necessity. Without the prerequisite grammar knowledge, readers cannot fully understand text and they cannot take notes for writing. Writing a well-developed, well-organized, and coherent piece is enhanced when students have a wealth of ideas collected from reading and personal experiences.

Writing also entails being able to revise at the sentence level. In order to write and revise one's writing to present and communicate ideas using various types of sentences, knowledge of grammar is a necessity. In fact, grammar knowledge is one of the writer's essential tools.

When English learners read sentences with phrases and clauses, they often experience difficulty identifying the main subject and verb of a sentence. One way this can be taught is through direct instruction of various types of phrases and clauses and other aspects of grammar. The goals for the development of grammar knowledge in English learners are five-fold:

a. to enhance the student's ability to identify the subject and the verb of sentences
b. to increase comprehension of content subject texts
c. to assist with note-taking skills
d. to develop academic writing skills and strategies
e. to develop revision skills and strategies.

This approach of teaching grammar for the purpose of developing proficiency in the Discourses of academic English and academic literacy within context of reading, taking notes, and writing has five sub-steps:

1. Identify the main subject and verb of sentences in which a phrase or clause appears
2. Identify the phrase or clause
3. Learn the label/name and the function of the phrase or clause
4. Write different sentences with the same type of phrase or clause, using an object or a topic the learners have background knowledge in
5. Re-write the sentence in the text in their own words (paraphrase).

The instructional procedure will utilize Vygotsky's (1978) verbal modeling and interaction, a type of think aloud, to model the function of syntactic patterns being taught. The steps in the instructional procedure include the following:

1. Modeling and explanation of the characteristics and functions of the syntactic feature being taught;
2. Scaffolded or guided practice;
3. Collaborative practice;
4. Review and feedback;
5. Provide opportunities for practice.

Anna E.L. Chee, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Language, Literacy, and Learning
California State University, Los Angeles
Charter College of Education
Division of Curriculum and Instruction

Personal Statement in the University Application Process

John Regan, Ed.D.
(Seoul Global High School)

I. Introduction

1. What is the Personal Statement?

1.1 The P/S is autobiographical in nature and should offer an understanding of the college applicant as a unique individual.

1.2 The P/S should be within the context of family, school, community, and the world at large.

1.3 The P/S provides a forum for the student to explain how factors outside of her/his school environment have either enhanced or impeded the ability to maximize available academic and intellectual opportunities.

1.4 The P/S topic addressed and the style employed are up to you.

1.5 The P/S should reflect your personal perspective: Consider the P/S your opportunity to "meet" college admissions counselors.

1.6 The viewpoints you would share if you were to "meet" with admissions counselors should make up your personal statement.

2. What are Admissions Counselors Looking For?

2.1 They want to discover you as an individual.

2.1.1 Evidence of your intellectual curiosity and your interest in personal development.
2.1.2 The university is a challenging and dynamic environment that is largely made possible by the involvement of equally dynamic students. They want to make sure that admitted applicants are ready to thrive in the university atmosphere.

2.1.3 They want an idea of what drives, inspires, and motivates each applicant.

2.1.4 They want to know <u>your</u> personal qualities:
- Intellectual Vitality and Curiosity
- Creativity
- Self-discipline and Determination
- Leadership
- Commitment to Others
- Self-awareness & Cultural-awareness
- Maturity
- Depth of Achievement
- Commitment to Goals

3. Advice for Writing a Compelling Personal Statement?

1. <u>Proofread</u>

In addition to checking your spelling, be sure your grammar is correct and your essays read smoothly.

2. <u>Solicit Feedback</u>

Your Personal Statement should reflect your own ideas and be written by you alone, but others – family and teachers – can offer valuable suggestions.

3. <u>Copy and Paste</u>

Once you are satisfied with your essays, save them in plain text and paste them into the space provided on the application. Proofread once more to make sure no odd characters or line breaks have appears.

"There's No Such Thing as Good Writing – there's only good Re-writing."

John Regan, Ed.D
College Counselor & Head Foreign Teacher
Seoul Global High School
1-27 Myeong-dong 1-ga, jongno-gu
Seoul, 110-521, Korea Office: 82-2-743-9385
Mobile:: 82-2-010-8011-7418 *(preferred)*
E-mail: <u>DrRegan@hotmail.com</u>

Does Perception Inform Production? A Case of Cantonese ESL Learners

Alice Y.W. Chan
(City University of Hong Kong)

I. Introduction

Previous studies on second language phonology acquisition were essentially concerned with speech production (e.g. Carlisle 1988, Major & Kim 1999). Learners' perceptual abilities have largely been ignored. Learners' perception may affect the accuracy with which L2 phonetic segments can be produced (e.g. Munro & Derwing 1995, Rochet 1995, Schmid & Yeni-Komshian 1999). "Without accurate perceptual targets to guide the sensorimotor learning of L2 sounds, production of the L2 sounds will be inaccurate" (Flege 1995: 238). Studies that focus on speech production could only partially reflect learners' L2 phonology acquisition. The relationship between a learner's perceptual abilities and his/her production abilities should be given increasing attention.

II. Objectives of Study

The objectives of the present study were to explore the perception and production of English speech sounds by Cantonese ESL learners in Hong Kong and to examine the relationship between the production and perception of English speech sounds by the learners.

III. Participants

A total of 40 Hong Kong ESL learners (all native speakers of Cantonese), 29 females and 11 males and all aged from 19 to 42, participated in the study. They were all English or language majors studying at three local universities, including 8 year 1 students, 22 year 2 students, and 10 year 3 or postgraduate students.

IV. Perception Tasks

Three L2 Perception Tasks were conducted: L2 Categorial Discrimination Task, Word Discrimination Task and Picture Discrimination Task. Problematic English speech sounds were paired up with their corresponding popular substitutes either in sets of isolated phones or in minimal word pairs. A total of six obstruent pairs (e.g. /θ/ and /f/), five sonorant consonant pairs (e.g. /r/ and /w/) and four vowel pairs (e.g. /i:/ and /ɪ/) were included in the tasks.

For the Perception of L1 and L2 Sounds Task, a set of English words (real or non-words) were spoken in RP English twice in a row followed by a Cantonese word containing a similar sound spoken once. On hearing the stimuli, the participants had to rate the degree of similarity of the target English and Cantonese sounds using a scale ranging from 1 (very different) to 5 (very similar).

Three Production Tasks were also conducted, including reading of 115 isolated words, reading of 66 minimal pairs, and reading of three passages of about 250 - 350 words each.

V. Data Analysis

The proportion of correct and incorrect judgments of each target English sound by each participant in each L2 Perception Task was computed to uncover the frequency with which a particular target sound was correctly perceived. The perceived similarity between a pair of L1 and L2 sounds in the Perception of L1 and L2 Sounds Task was found by using the following formula:

Mean = $\sum$ p=1-5 Degree of similarity (p) * number of participants who chose that degree / (divided by) Total number of participants

The participants' production performance in the Production Tasks was recorded using a high-quality mini-disk recorder and played to two to three listeners for accuracy judgment. The percentages of accurate productions for each target sound were computed for each task and for all the tasks.

VI. Results and Discussion

L2 Perception Tasks: About 85% and 91% of obstruents and sonorant consonants were accurately perceived. Perception of the fricative pair /ʃ/ and /s/ was the best: The correctness percentage was 99.6%. Perception of /θ/ and /f/ was the poorest: only 63%, 67% and 61% were accurately perceived by the participants in the three tasks respectively (overall accuracy = 64%). Surprisingly, problematic obstruents, such as /θ/, /ʃ/, and /ð/ were sometimes perceived more accurately than their popular substitutes, such as /f/, /s/, and /d/. Some problematic obstruents, such as /ð/, /ʃ/, and /dʒ/, even had an overall accuracy rate of 100% in some tasks.

For sonorant consonants, /l/ was rather poorly perceived. /ŋ/ and /n/ were also problematic, though slightly less so than /l/. /r/ and /l/ was the best sonorant pair, with an overall accuracy rate of 99%. Problematic sonorant consonants were not more poorly perceived than their popular substitutes. /r/ reached an overall accuracy rate of 99% when contrasted with /l/. When contrasted with /w/, /r/ reached an overall accuracy rate of 95%. /w/ only had an accuracy rate of 89%.

The participants' perception of the vowel pair /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ was the poorest. The accuracy rate was only 69%. The low /æ/ and high /e/ pair also presented a number of perceptual problems to the participants, with an accuracy rate of 77%. Lax vowels were on the whole more accurately perceived than corresponding tense ones, except for /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/.

Perception of L1 and L2 Sounds Task: The overall goodness-of-fit ratings assigned for consonant pairs were generally low, in the range between 1.63 and 2.83. English /r/ and Cantonese /l/ were regarded the most dissimilar pair of contrasts, with a rating of only 1.63. All other pairs of consonants received ratings higher than 2. English /θ/ and Cantonese /f/ received a rating of 2.55, which was slightly higher than the rating given to English /v/ and Cantonese /f/ (2.53). The difference in ratings between English /r/ and Cantonese /l/ and many other pairs of contrasts were statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level. When the same Cantonese consonant was compared with different English consonants, there were some descriptive differences in the mean goodness-of-fit ratings assigned by the participants.

The overall goodness-of-fit ratings assigned for vowel pairs were mostly in the range between 3 and 4. The mean goodness-of-fit ratings for English /i:/ and /ɪ/ to Cantonese /i/ were 3.70 and 3.59 respectively. The ratings for English /u:/ and /ʊ/ to Cantonese /u/ were 3.70 and 3.81 respectively. The ratings for English /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ to Cantonese /ɔ/ were 3.59 and 4.01 respectively. The highest goodness-of-fit rating was observed for the English /ɒ/ and Cantonese /ɔ/ pair, which received a mean rating of 4.01. English low /æ/ was regarded more similar to Cantonese /e/ than English /e/ (3.95 vs. 3.48) although phonetically the latter is closer to the Cantonese counterpart than the former.

Production Tasks: The participants' production of voiceless obstruents was good, with over 90% of accuracy for most cases (e.g. 98.6% for /f/, /97.6% for /s/, 99% for /tʃ/). The voiceless obstruent with lowest score was /θ/, which received an accuracy rate of only 71.9%. Their production of voiced obstruents was much poorer (e.g. 15.3% for /v/, 3.68% for /ð/ and 7.8% for /z/).

The participants' production of sonorant consonants was on average better than that of voiced obstruents. Overall accuracy rates were largely over 80%. The only exception was /l/ (in final position). The accuracy rate was only about 13%. /ŋ/ was much more poorly produced than /n/ (accuracy rates = 84% and 96% respectively).

The participants' production of vowels was on the whole similar to their perception. About 80% of the target sounds were correctly produced. /æ/ was the sound most inaccurately produced (accuracy rate = 16%). /ɪ/ and /e/ created least problems. Accuracy rates were 97% and 96% respectively. Long vowels were on the whole more poorly produced than short vowels. The same pattern was found for

all the short and long vowel pairs under investigation. The biggest difference was seen in /i:/ and /ɪ/, and the difference between /u:/ and /ʊ/ was the smallest.

It can be seen from the above results that perception and production do not seem to bear a strict one-to-one relationship. Poor perception does not necessarily lead to poor production, and good perception does not necessarily result in good production. Sounds which are perceived as similar may be produced with different accuracy rates.

VII. Conclusion

The results of a research study which investigated the perception and production of English speech sounds by Cantonese ESL learners in Hong Kong were reported. The results show that production and perception do not bear a very intimate relation to each other. Further research is needed to investigate the production and perception of learners at other proficiency levels.

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Alice Y.W. Chan
Department of English
City University of Hong Kong
Phone: (852) 2788-9752
Email: enalice@cityu.edu.hk

Biodata

Alice Y.W. Chan is an Associate Professor at the Department of English, City University of Hong Kong. Her research interests include second language acquisition, English grammar, English phonetics and phonology, and lexicography.

Dual Transfer of Korean-Chinese Bilinguals in English Learning

Sung-ok Nam (Yanbian University, China)

Language transfer takes place in the process of language learning. Odlin (1989:27) defined language transfer as "the influence resulted from the differences between the target language and the languages that have been previously acquired". Therefore the two languages acquired will influence the acquisition of the third language.

Korean-Chinese learn English on the basis of Korean and Chinese languages and cultures, which will cause dual transfer, either positive transfer or negative transfer, of Korean and Chinese in their English learning (Zhang Zhen'ai, 1998). When English item is unmarked, but Korean or Chinese is marked, there won't be any transfer; on the contrary, when Korean or Chinese is unmarked, but English item is marked, there will be some transfer, mainly in phonological, lexical and syntactical level.

I. Phonological Transfer

Due to the negative transfer of mother tongue, English learners might be slow at or difficult in learning some English pronunciation. For example, Chinese students are not good at English liaison, while Korean students are not good at producing such English consonants as "f". Since Korean-Chinese bilinguals have acquired two phonological systems of Korean and Chinese, they are better in recognizing and pronouncing English speech sounds and have more flexible speech organs. They can always find the same or similar English vowels or consonants in Korean or/and Chinese ones, which can cause positive transfer in learning English. When they learn such consonants as [f], [ʃ], [dr] or [tr] , they may get help from similar Chinese consonants"f, sh, zh, ch" ; but when learn such vowels as [iə], [au] or [æ], they can refer to Korean sounds "이어, 아우, 애". Some Korean or Chinese phonological rules can also be helpful. English liaison and incomplete plosive which are not easy to explain in Chinese are very easily acquired by Korean-Chinese bilinguals, and the pronunciation of English homographs with more than one stress is easier for Korean-Chinese bilinguals since they can find similar phenomenon in Chinese.

II. Lexical Transfer

Many borrowing words in English enable those who speak Korean to learn English vocabulary easier and faster though they may cause some negative transfer in pronunciation. Comparison between English and Korean or Chinese as well as association with these two languages can be useful in learning English vocabulary. "Mustache" can be associate both phonologically and semantically with Korean, while"cough" both phonologically and semantically with Chinese "咳嗽(cough)". So is "akin". It's easy to confuse "complement"和"compliment"which are very similar in spelling and pronunciation but quite different in meaning, but will be easier to distinguish by associating phonologically with Chinese"爱". So are"ache" and "fascination".

III. Syntactic transfer

Korean-Chinese bilinguals are quick in learning English basic pattern drills which are quite similar to Chinese ones. Personal pronouns are"Me-ism"in English but "We-ism"in Korean, which might be the reason why such expressions as "our father" or "our wife" are produced by some who speak Korean. If referred to Chinese, this kind of errors will be avoided. On the other hand, "my"和"mine" are easy to be confused by Chinese English learners but not by Korean students since these two

pronouns are very distinctive in Korean "나의"和"나의 것". So are "there be" sentences if they are compared with similar Korean sentences. Comparison between English and Korean tenses and aspects will be helpful for English learners of Korean-Chinese bilinguals.

IV. Conclusion

Korean-Chinese bilinguals have great possibilities to activate two languages systems and two language learning experiences in the process of English learning, by which they can recognize and compare the similarities and differences among three languages of English, Korean and Chinese. This kind of two-way comparison between English and Korean as well as that between English and Chinese can lead to dual positive transfer, which will speed up English learning at the basic stages. Therefore, how to help English learners maximize positive transfer and minimize negative transfer by means of various teaching approaches and activities is the biggest and challenging issues for English teachers of Korean-Chinese bilinguals.

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Chengyu Nan, Ph. D of Applied Linguistics, Yanbian University

Email：chengyunan@yahoo.com

How to Deal with Vocabulary Problems in L2 Communication?

Su-Ja Kang (Pai Chai University)

I. Introduction

In second language (L2) oral communication, speakers often experience vocabulary (lexical) problems as well as other types of linguistic problems such as pronunciation and structural (syntactic) problems. When L2 speakers encounter various problems during the course of communication, they tend to spend a great deal of time and effort negotiating and struggling to cope with the problems (Gass & Varonis, 1991). It is well known that L2 speakers generally manage to overcome their problems by employing what are known as *communication strategies* (CSs).

Researchers have presented different definitions of CSs, reflecting their own theoretical perspectives. In the earlier stage of CS research, two definitions were put forth. Færch and Kasper (1983) presented the psycholinguistic definition of CSs: "Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communication goal"(p. 36). On the other hand, Tarone (1983) presented the sociolinguistic/interactional definition: "Communication strategy (CS)—a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared (Meaning structures included both linguistic and sociolinguistic structures)"(p. 72). However, researchers have attempted to broaden the traditional view on CSs. Dörnyei (1995) presented an extended view on CSs to include stalling devices that are not strictly meaning-related. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) further extended the conceptualization of CS, equating the use of CS with communication problem-solving behavior in general. For this study, I adopted Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) definition, in which CSs are considered to be every potentially intentional attempt to cope with any language related problem of which the speaker is aware during the course of communication.

As CSs can play a significant role in communication management, L2 speakers using appropriate CSs are less likely to have communication breakdowns and more likely to manage communication problems and communication itself successfully. It is generally believed, therefore, CSs are something L2 speakers should use to communicate effectively.

Due to their significant role in communication management, many researchers have studied CSs. However, CS research has been limited in several ways. Although some types of CSs managing vocabulary problems have been presented by researchers, most of them were not identified from natural conversation data. There is also a lack of research exploring CSs that Korean speakers use in their L2 communication.

The purpose of this study was to (1) identify CSs that are employed to deal with vocabulary problems encountered during L2 communication and (2) illustrate how L2 speakers can manage the problems and deliver the intended message successfully by employing CSs.

II. Method

1) Participants

The participants of this study were 12 Korean students who were studying at a university in the U.S. with a variety of student statuses: English Language Institute, undergraduate, MA, and Ph.D. students. They also varied in terms of gender (male (5), female (7)), age (23～43), the length of stay in the U.S. (2 months～6 years), the level of English proficiency (limited～high advanced), and the field of study.

2) Research Sites

The conversation data for this study were collected at various sites where the participants had English conversations in authentic conversational contexts. The main research site from which I collected conversation data was a conversation partner program. The participants' conversation data were also collected during a spoken English test administered to measure the participants' oral English fluency, in the course of classroom work, and in various other social situations, such as during their lunch hours,

during teaching practice, during Bible study discussions, at parties, and in an afternoon class at an elementary school in which a participant taught Korean.

3) Data Collection and Analysis

This study used data from recorded conversations and stimulated recalls. The participants' conversations in various situations were observed and recorded on video and/or audiotapes, depending on the availability of videotaping. As recommended in Goetz and LeCompte (1984), the observer and recording equipment were positioned in a location that was as unobtrusive as possible to obtain more natural conversation data.

During the observation and preliminary coding, I identified moments in which the participants appeared to experience problems and to employ CSs. This coding was based on the performance features that researchers presented as evidence for strategic intervention: temporal variables (rate of articulation, pauses, drawls, or repeats), self-repair (false starts and new starts), speech slips (lapses or speech errors), and saying almost the same meaning twice.

Based on the coding, I conducted the stimulated recall, which is a hybrid of a metacognitive interview and a think-aloud session (Garner, 1987) and can be used to explore learners' processes or strategies at the time of an activity or task (Gass & Mackey, 2000). During the stimulated recall, the participants were asked to comment on what had happened in their mind while managing the problem. To obtain more reliable data, the stimulated recalls were conducted in Korean, the native language of the researcher and the participants. The stimulated recall sessions were audio taped and transcribed.

From an inductive analysis of conversation and stimulated recall data, I inductively identified CSs that were employed to manage vocabulary problems. After CSs were identified, a taxonomic analysis (Spradley, 1980) was conducted. In this analysis, CSs were classified into categories and subcategories, depending on the resources used in employing CSs.

III. Findings

This study identified various types of lexical CSs (LCSs), which refer to CSs employed to deal with vocabulary problems. LCSs were used when the participant was not able to retrieve or come up with the appropriate words required to deliver the intended message, or was not sure if they were using the word(s) correctly. LCSs were first classified into two: (a) *abandonment* LCSs and (b) *achievement* LCSs, depending on whether the participants abandoned or attempted to achieve the goal of delivering the intended message containing the lexical problem. Abandonment LCSs were further classified into three subcategories: (a) *topic avoidance*, (b) *message abandon*, and (c) *within-object message change* LCSs. Achievement LCSs were classified into three subcategories: (a) *linguistic/world knowledge*, (b) *other-dependent*, and (c) *combination* LCSs, depending on the resources utilized to solve the problem. These three types of achievement LCSs also have their subcategories, which are presented in Table 1. Among categorizations of LCSs, the most remarkable one was the classification of the linguistic/world knowledge lexical CS into two types: (a) *word-level* LCSs, which were applied at the micro level of the problematic word, and (b) *message-level* LCSs, which were applied at the macro level of the message that contains a problematic word.

Table 1. Lexical CSs (LCSs)

Abandonment LCSs	Topic Avoidance					
	Message Abandon			Pre-sentence message abandon		
				Mid-sentence message abandon		
	*Within-Object Message Change			*Pre-sentence message change		
				*Mid-sentence message change		
Achievement LCSs	Linguistic/World Knowledge	*Word-Level		*Word-Skipping		
			Word-Substitution	L2-Based Based	Approximation substitution	Semantic approximation
						* Phonetic approximation
					Generalization substitution	Super-ordinate word
						Multi-reference word
						* Left-out modifier
					Specification substitution	Sub-ordinate word(s)/ Example(s)
					* Association substitution	
					Coinage substitution	* Word coinage
						Compound word coinage
					* Part-of-speech substitution	
				L1-Based	* L1 Literal-translation substitution	
					L1 Code-switching substitution	
			Word-Comparison		Similarity comparison	
					* Symbolic comparison	
					* Opposite comparison	
					* Comparative relation comparison	
			Word-Defining		Function, appearance, location, status, etc	
			*Word-Contextualization		* Gap-filling contextualization	
					* Situational contextualization	
		*Message-Level	* Sentence-Restructuring	*Within-proposition	*Pre-sentence sentence-restructuring	
					*Mid-sentence sentence-restructuring	
			Message-Rephrasing		*Pre-sentence message-rephrasing	
					*Mid-sentence message-rephrasing	
			* Message-Example Illustration	*Beyond-- proposition proposition	*Pre-sentence message-example illustration	
					*Mid-sentence message-example illustration	
			* Message-Cause Illustration		*Pre-sentence message-cause illustration	
					*Mid-sentence message-cause illustration	
			* Message-Effect Illustration		*Pre-sentence message-effect illustration	
					*Mid-sentence message-effect illustration	
			* Message-Cooccurrence Illustration		*Pre-sentence message-cooccurrence illustration	
					*Mid-sentence message-cooccurrence illustration	
	Non-Linguistic Physical Device		Visual Representation		Gesture	
					Mime	
					Pointing	
					*Drawing	
			* Sound Representation			
	Other-Dependent		Interlocutor-dependent		Explicit Request	Word offering request
						Word confirmation request
					Implicit Appeal	Expression of difficulty
						Repeated trying
						Varied trying
						Partial trying
						Raised intonation
						Eye contact
						* Eliciting question
			Dictionary-dependent			
	*Combination					

The LCSs identified from this study differ from other CSs presented by other researchers in several ways. First, LCSs in Table 1 include new CSs that have not been identified from previous studies, even under different names. These new CSs are marked "*" in Table 1. Second, these LCSs presented in Table 1 differ from others in terms of categorization and the names of categories (see Dörnyei & Scott, 1997 for others' categorizations).

In the presentation, I will illustrate how each LCS was employed to manage the vocabulary problem(s), addressing the original intended meaning, the problematic word, the CS used, the output produced by employing the CS, and whether the intended meaning was delivered by employing the CS.

VI. Conclusion

This study presented various types of LCSs on the basis of natural conversation and stimulated recall data. The findings of this study showed that the participants who employed achievement LCSs were able to deliver their own intended message at least to some extent. This finding convinced us that the use of achievement LCSs is essential in managing L2 communication effectively and achieving the goal of delivering the intended message. Furthermore, the significance of LCSs can be enhanced by the role of achievement LCSs in L2 acquisition and learning. Achievement LCSs can elicit feedback and trigger meaning negotiation, both of which are found to facilitate language acquisition and learning. Given their facilitating role in communication and language acquisition, more attention should be paid to LCSs in the field of L2 learning and teaching. Despite some controversies regarding the effectiveness of the teachability of CSs, it is also recommended that L2 educators teach various effective LCSs to L2 learners and encourage them to use appropriate LCSs in their actual communication.

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Su-Ja Kang
Department of English Language and Literature
Pai Chai University
Phone: 042-520-5631/010-2770-8610
Email: sujakang3@yahoo.com

Biodata

Su-Ja Kang is a full-time instructor at Pai Chai University. She received her Ph.D. from the State University of New York at Buffalo. Her research interests include communication strategies, willingness to communicate, intercultural communication, L2 speakers' identities, and factors affecting L2 use and learning.

Taiwan-Mandarin EFL Students' Acquisition of English Metaphoric and Idiomatic Expressions

Hsiu-Min Yu (Chung Hua University)

I. Introduction

It has been pointed out that the mastery of L2 idioms and metaphors represents achieving the high level of L2 proficiency (Wiser, 2005) With an increasing interest in investigating the EFL learners' acquisition of L2 English idiomatic and metaphoric expressions, the strategies employed by the EFL learners or the factors which influence their idiom and metaphor acquisition have been productively and profoundly explored. For instance, Cooper (1999) suggests that to find the meaning of idioms the EFL learners would resort to various strategies such as guessing meaning from the contexts, from the literal meaning conveyed by the idiom constituent words, based on their world knowledge, or retrieving an L1 mapping idioms. Charteris-Black (2002) demonstrated that similar metaphoric concepts between L1 and L2 might interfere EFL learners' acquisition caused by negative transfer.

Studies particularly on Taiwan-Mandarin EFL learners' L2 English idiom and metaphor acquisition have indicated the issues related the strategies the Taiwanese learners used (Huang, 2007 and Lin, 2003). According to Huang (2007), the more complex the metaphoric concepts underlying the linguistic metaphors, the harder for the EFL learners in mastering the metaphoric meaning, and the students instructed to draw pictures of the metaphors under consideration performed better in the achievement tests than those who did not receive such instruction. Lin (2003) found that her participants tended to guess the meaning of the unknown idioms by employing the clues from the contexts instead of inferring the figurative meaning from the literal meaning, and the participants' using of literal meaning to guess the metaphoric meaning supported Habilin and Gibs's decompositonality hypothesis.

Most of the previous studies concerning L2 English metaphor learning did experiments with idioms expressed in some carrying contexts, a procedure which inevitably involves factors produced by sentence or passage reading and the contexts where idioms occur rather than the factors derived from the metaphors or idioms in itself. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to address the question: what are the factors from L2 English metaphors per se which influence the Taiwan-Mandarin EFL learners' metaphor acquisition. To cope with the research question, a survey of dichotomous idiom classification along with the reasons for the classification results was conducted to uncover the possible underlying factors influential in the participants' cognitive processing of memorizing metaphors.

II. Methodology

1. Participants

The participants for the study were 66 non-English-major sophomores at Chung Hua University in Taiwan. All of them were taking a one-semester course of English idioms and metaphors during the first term of the academic year of 2009. The textbook for the course was *Idioms – English in Context* written by Betty Kirkpatrick Ma (2001), which was determined by the author based on the consideration of Ma's well-structured arrangements of the English idioms and metaphors by introducing for each unit 10 expressions and example sentences, and one interesting sample article with topic related to general collegian daily life and in the meanwhile showing the use of idioms and metaphors in contexts. The course was such scheduled as to introduce 3 units of 30 idioms in total every week, and the students, before participating in teacher's lecturing, were required to take weekly tests on the idioms learned in the previous week. By this way, the students are expected to be attentive to their review of what they learn from the class at home for preparing the weekly tests.

2. Survey

Since the research question concerned in this study is to explore what possible factors might influence Taiwan-Mandarin EFL students' memorizing English idioms and metaphors, a survey was

conducted at the last-week quiz by asking the participants, based on their retrospection on the experience of idioms memorization, to (a) classify dichotomously some out of the 30 English idioms, originally memorized for their weekly quiz, as either the easy type of memorization or as the difficult one, and then (b) write, in English or Chinese, their personal reasons as completely as possible for each of the evaluation result on a piece of blank paper the author gave to them.

3. Data Analysis and Discussion

For each item of the 30 idioms, three things were recorded: its type of classification determined by the participants, the numbers of participants who involved in this idiom-type classification, and the associated reasons provided by the participants for their decision. Table 1 gave the idioms of two types and the percentage of the numbers of participants engaging in the idiom-type classification.

Table 1
Idioms for the Study, by the Type Classification and the Proportions of the Participants Involved Arranged in Descending Order

Easy-type Idioms	Proportion of Participants	Difficult-type Idioms	Proportion of Participants
To have green fingers	74%	To cross the Rubicon	52%
To give someone the cold shoulder	61%	Hobson's choice	47%
To earn an honest penny	45%	have the gift of the gab	42%
Donkey work	41%	To hedge one's bets	36%
To put all one's eggs in one basket	41%	To paddle one's own canoe	36%
To hold a pistol to someone's head	33%	To go by the board	30%
To pour oil on troubled waters	30%	To come up to scratch	29%
To make someone's hair stand on end	29%	At daggers drawn	29%
To hit the bottle	26%	To call a spade a spade	24%
Hobson's choice	23%	Under the influence	24%
To sink one's differences	20%	Up for a grabs	24%
To mend fences	18%	To hold a pistol to someone's head	24%
To drown one's sorrows	18%	a bone of contention	23%
Not someone's cup of tea	18%	To hit the bottle	21%
To ruffle someone's feathers	18%	To Sink someone's differences	21%
To show one's paces	17%	To pour oil on troubled waters	20%
To be spoiling for a fight	17%	To get one's fingers burnt	18%
A bone of contention	14%	To drown one's sorrows	17%
At daggers drawn	12%	To put all one's eggs in one basket	15%
To make someone's hackles rise	12%	To make someone's hackles rise	14%
To call a spade a spade	12%	To make someone's hair stand on end	12%
To get one's fingers burnt	11%	To mend fences	12%
Up for a grab	11%	To be spoiling for a fight	11%
To come up to scratch	9%	To ruffle someone's feathers	11%
To cross the Rubicon	8%	To earn an honest penny	5%
To paddle one's own canoe	8%	not someone's cup of tea	5%
under the influence	6%	To give someone the cold shoulder	3%

To go by the board	5%	To have green fingers	2%
To have the gift of the gab	3%	donkey work	2%
		To show one's paces	2%

On examining the cross-type ordering of the idioms, though there is no exact one-to-one decreasing-increasing corresponding ordering of the idioms, still a general tendency can be found that the easy-type idioms with more participants involved and thus appearing in the higher position of the easy-type column are more likely to occur in the lower position of the difficult-type column, and vice versa. For an illustration, the idioms *to have green fingers*, *to give someone a cold shoulder*, *donkey work*, and *to earn an honest penny* serve the typical examples, and also the fact that 10 out of the first 15 easy-type idioms occur in the second half of the difficult-type column can indicate the inclination.

Moreover, in Table 1 the proportions of the participants related with the idiom classification may indirectly reflect the various degrees of the easiness and difficulty of memorization for the idioms. For example, idioms of the easy type with higher percentages of the numbers of participants such as *to have green fingers*, *to give someone the cold shoulder*, *donkey work*, and *to earn an honest penny* were probably evaluated as easier to memorize than the ones with lower percentages like *to paddle one's own canoe*, *under the influence*, *to go by the board*, and *to have the gift of the gab*; on the other hand, idioms of the difficult type with larger proportions of participants such *to cross the Rubicon*, *Hobson's choice*, *have the gift of the gab*, and *to hedge one's bets* were likely considered to require more effort to memorize than those with lower proportions of participants like to *give someone the cold shoulder*, *to have green fingers*, *donkey work* and *to show one's paces*.

Now that the 30 idioms are evaluated to be varied in terms of their degrees of easiness to be memorized, what might be the factors which affect the participants' assessment? To address the question, the reflective reasons offered by the participants while categorizing the idiom types were sorted out, and the occurrence tokes of the reasons were computed to determine the degree of the factors' influential effectivenss. Tables 2 and 3 respectively show the various kinds of reasons and their corresponding occurrence tokens for the easy-type and the difficult type idiom classification.

Table 2
Reasons for the Easy-type Idiom Classification and the Occurrence Tokens of the Reasons Listed in Decreasing Order

Reasons for the Easy-type Idiom Classification	Tokens
short/easy constituent words	128
metaphoric meaning associated with the literal one	113
full of images	75
similar literal and metaphoric meanings	51
clear interpretation made by the teacher	19
known and learned before	15
similar Chinese mapping	14
special and interesting	5
clear explanation offered by the book	1

Table 3
Reasons for the Difficult-type Idiom Classification and the Occurrence Tokens of the Reasons Listed in Decreasing Order

Reasons for the Difficult-type Idiom Classification	Tokens
difficult/long constituent words	154
metaphoric meaning not associated with the literal one	118
different literal and metaphorical meanings	60

first met idioms	33
confusing interpretation made by the teacher	15
no images	11
confounding idioms	11

Several factors can be concluded by examining together the data presented by both Tables 2 and 3. At first glance, the degree of complexity of the idiom constituent words seems to play the central role in the participants' memorizing idioms for this factor obtains the highest occurrence tokens among all the reasons for both idiom types – a total of 282 occurrence tokens. However, because the seemingly different reasons *metaphoric meaning associated with the literal one*, *similar literal and metaphoric meanings*, and *full of images* for the easy-type idiom classification are actually different paraphrases for the same concept that the literal meaning can be transferred into the metaphoric one. This is also the case for the difficult-type idiom classification with the reasons *metaphoric meaning NOT associated with the literal one*, *different literal and metaphorical meanings*, and *no images* expressing the same idea that no transferability of the meaning can be found. In other words, the more transparent the idiom is, the less effort the participants had to spend on memorizing it. Consequently, transferability of the idioms should be the primary factor that significantly determines the degree of the easiness of idiom memorization.

Besides, other factors like the degree of familiarity of the idioms, the degree of clearness of the teacher's lecturing, and the presence of similar Chinese mapping also determine the idiom memorization to certain extent.

The relationship between the idioms and the reasons offered by the participants is another important issue worth investigation because it may indicate the influential factors that affect a particular idiom's acquisition. However, due to the limitation of space and time, only the most typical example is presented in Tables 5, which shows that the reasons why most participants considered the idiom *to have green fingers* to be the most easy one to memorize is that the metaphoric meaning can be obtained by transferring the literal meaning to the figurative one, a validation for the previous finding that transferability plays the central role in idiom memorization.

Table 5
The Idiom to have green fingers and the reasons associated

Idiom	Reasons	Tokens
To have green fingers	metaphoric meaning not associated with the literal one	20
	short/easy constituent words	14
	known and learned before	5
	similar literal and metaphoric meanings	4
	full of images	4
	special and interesting	1
	clear interpretation made by the teacher	1

III. Results and Conclusion

Different from the studies on on-line reaction to unknown idioms in context sentences or on the effects brought by different teaching methodologies on idioms and metaphors interpretation, the present study focused on exploring the factors generated from the L2 English idioms and metaphors per se by conducting a survey to find out the possible underlying effective causes which might affect the participants' acquiring and memorizing idioms. The participants were asked, through their

retrospection on their process of memorizing idioms, to do a dichotomous idiom type classification based on their reflective reasons.

The participants' performance on the survey was honest and sincere for no illogical and unsymmetrical idiom classification was found, and discreet reasons were generated. From the reasons the participants provided, two important factors from the metaphors per se emerged: (1) the transferability of idioms plays the most effective role in English L2 idiom and metaphor acquisition, and (2) the complexity of the idiom constituent words makes a heavy burden for the participants when copying with memorizing them. In addition, pedagogically teacher's clear explanation for the meaning of idioms and metaphors can help lessen students' heavy cognitive load of idiom memorization; similar L1 mapping idioms and metaphors, if any, are inspiring for acquiring L2 corresponding ones.

It is hoped that the findings yielded from this study would be pedagogically helpful for the teachers and also facilitating EFL learners' L2 English idiom acquisition.

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Phone English Instruction
How it Works and How Effective it is

Marilou M. Sabado (Neungyule Education)

The purpose of this presentation is to illustrate how phone English instruction is systematically operated by an English education provider with a call center in the Philippines and what effects and advantages phone instruction has. With English fast becoming the primary lingua franca of the world's citizens, the Korean government is strengthening the English curriculum to cultivate young learners' competitiveness in the global arena. For various reasons, however, it is almost impossible for students to achieve the required level of competence even after completing the entire course set by the national curriculum. As a matter of fact, most Koreans have a poor command of English despite decades-long learning at school. Furthermore, the average score of Korean English learners continues to rank poorly compared with other countries in the major standardized English proficiency tests. As a result, multinational corporations who plan to expand into Asia are reluctant to locate their Asian headquarters in Korea due to anticipated language difficulties. What is the reason for the low efficiency of English education in Korea? It is widely understood that a major factor is the lack of exposure to real-life English and lack of opportunities to practice using English outside the classroom. Considering this situation, distance-learning approaches such as phone English instruction and video-conferencing are able to make a valuable contribution in improving communicative competence by providing Korean English learners in EFL settings with the opportunity to put into practice the language learned in the classroom. Therefore, in order to provide efficient and effective foreign language education, more schools should consider introducing phone instruction and video-conferencing in addition to traditional face-to-face teaching and learning.

I. Common misconceptions about instructors from the Philippines

• Filipinos are not recommendable English instructors due to their accents.
• Instructors from the US or Canada are better than those from the Philippines.
• Learning English over the phone is not as effective as learning face-to-face in the classroom.
• Learning via video-conferencing is more effective compared to learning over the phone or vice versa.

II. Introduction to NE phone class

Teaching the Neungyule way

Neungyule makes use of lexical and other innovative approaches to teaching English. Teachers are encouraged to use the lexical approach as much as possible and to focus on learning 'lexical chunks' and building students' ability to use them. Instead of teaching English through abstract grammar rules, learners learn lexical chunks to use for a variety of situations and purposes (greeting, inviting, agreeing, apologizing, etc). This way, the language learned is more easily remembered.

Teaching English online the Neungyule way differs from conventional classroom teaching. Here are the basic features of the classes we provide at Neungyule:

- Classes are conducted one-on-one so that the class is both focused and personal.
- Teaching focuses on the learning of lexical chunks for real-life speaking and self-expression.
- Classes last for relatively short periods (10 -30 minutes) so that class time is always maximized.
- Classes have general guidelines, but teachers remain flexible and creative in using available tools to customize classes for various students.

III. Recruitment and selection of trainees

Neungyule Eduphone takes pride in striving for high standards of professionalism and performance from its employees. For this reason, it employs a systematic and stringent recruitment and selection process to screen applicants. The screening process starts with an initial interview and a preliminary English Proficiency exam. Those who meet the company's standards in terms of English proficiency and potential to become an effective teacher then go through a final interview before being accepted to join the 4 week training program.

The training program

The month-long training program is divided into four weeks, with each week focused on specific elements of effective online teaching. Each week ends with trainee evaluation, including a practical and written exam.

Week 1: Basics of Online Teaching

Knowing our Students
Learning Class Procedures
Learning about Courses and Textbooks
English Exercises
Class Simulations

Week 2: Deepening Knowledge, Practical Training

Deepening Knowledge of Courses and Textbooks
Using Online Systems and Equipment
Learning about Korean Culture
English Exercises
Class Simulations

Weeks 3-4: Hands-on Training

Integrating into Operations, Learning Operations
Rules and Procedures
Demo/Actual Classes with Koreans
Textbook and Encoding Exercises
English Exercises
Lesson Planning

Trainee Evaluation

An integral part of the training process is trainee evaluation. Each week of training culminates with a one-on-one consultation with the trainer. At the end of each week of training, trainees are given feedback on their strengths and weaknesses as well as their overall performance for the week. Those who meet the standards of the company then go on to the next week of training and are promoted to probationary status.

Trainees are evaluated on the following criteria:

A. English Proficiency
B. Teaching Skills
C. Demeanor in Class
D. Attitude and Conduct
E. Attendance

IV. Neungyule Eduphone's Various Curriculums

Junior Courses

- Fun Talk (Levels 1-6)
- Let's Go Phonics (Books 1-3)

Adult Courses

- Speak 2 Learn (Levels 1-5)
- Ten English Club (Step 1-6)
- Speaking Expert (1-6)
- Job Interview
- Business Course Series
- 'Free-Talking'

V. Classroom Management

What do students need?

Students learn best when their most critical needs are met:

Knowledge

Students want to learn and gain knowledge. They want to learn from teachers who sound knowledgeable and are adept at sharing their knowledge.

Safety

Students need to feel safe in class. They need to know that they can express themselves, make mistakes, and face challenges without fear of ridicule, discourtesy, criticism or indifference.

Respect

Students need to be respected for who they are. This includes respecting their abilities, intelligence, opinions, values and beliefs, situations, and preferences.

Responsibility

Students want to be given responsibility for learning. They want and need to be treated as equals, and to be challenged. They need to have their mistakes pointed out so that they can learn from them.

Care/Affection

Students want to learn from teachers who show genuine interest, caring and affection for them. They want teachers who sincerely support their desire to learn and encourage them in times of difficulty.

Meeting the students' needs

Because students need and require knowledge, safety, respect, responsibility, and care, make sure you always do the following when teaching:

1. Listen actively.

- This shows interest in what a student says; this makes students speak and enjoy the class more.
- Active listening also enables you to follow their speech closely and correct errors in expression and, pronunciation.

2. Encourage students to speak as much as possible.

- Respond well; ask questions, practice dialogs and expressions in the lesson.
- Speak as simply and as briefly as possible.

- Don’t interrupt or finish their sentences; let them practice expressing themselves.
- Never monopolize a conversation, or talk more than the student (unless the student is an unresponsive beginner).
- Don’t laugh at students’ mistakes.

3. Always praise your students’ efforts.
- Praise your students as often as possible, even when improvement is minimal. Keep in mind that it is difficult to learn a new language.

4. Always speak at an appropriate pace.
- Avoid speaking slower or faster than your student.

5. Always give appropriate corrective feedback, and do it kindly and patiently.
- Don’t let a class end without trying to improve your student’s expressions and pronunciation. The most satisfied students are those who learn the most.

6. Make the most of each class.
- Make sure your students learn something in every class.
- Make sure you and your student have fun in class.

7. Show kindness and respect at all times.

VI. Studies on the outcome of learning English via telephone

1) The Effects of Telephone English Conversation Learning with Native Speakers on Korean Middle School students' Oral Communicative Competence and Affective Aspects (Park, Eun Young 2003)

• Positive effects on listening/speaking fluency
• Positive effects on learner's attitudes about English and Listening/Speaking
• Positive feedback from learners on learning English over phone

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2) The Effects of Phone English Learning with Native Speakers on Korean Adult Male Learners' Oral Communication Competence (Kwon, Mee Young 2007)

• Positive effects especially on the development of listening ability
• Positive effects on learners' speaking fluency and complexity with no significant improvement in accuracy

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3) Correct Feedback and Learner Uptake in Phone English Instruction (Choi, Mi-Kyu 2008)

The strategies of using corrective feedback in Phone English instruction are fairly successful.
1. What is the average ratio of teacher-student turn-taking in each 10 minute instruction?
- > 50 : 50
2. What is the average number of words teachers and students use per utterance?
· teacher: 8.5 words
· students: 5.5 words (intermediate level 7.6; beginner level 3.3)
3. What percentage of the teacher’s speaking consists of corrective feedback?
33% (beginner level students received 14% more corrective feedback than intermediate students)
4. What is the most frequent type of corrective feedback?
· Explicit Correction for beginner level students: 94.9%

· Recasting Expressions for intermediate level students: 63%
· Initiations to Self-correct (elicitation, repetition etc.): 9%

VII. Technical requirements for videoconferencing

At the most basic level, we need Internet access, a computer, headphones, microphones, a webcam and all the necessary equipment for phone and video communication. Other technical tools include a platform designed for managing web pages for students and teachers to exchange correspondence, information, and writing in order to help build writing and communication skills.

VIII. Effective learning system via telephone

To be more effective, Neungyule's online language learning is structured systematically. It is geared toward student needs, hence the wide range of courses and textbooks to fit every need and student level, from beginners to advanced learners, from children to business people.

Courses also require students to enroll for a specific period of time and to have a regular time and weekly schedule so that language learning becomes a routine.

Online classes are done in real time, and conducted in a more or less conversational and relaxed manner so that learning becomes enjoyable as well as meaningful. The textbook provided for the various courses serves to provide some form of structure for the student and teacher in monitoring progress throughout the course. The textbook is usually composed of specific language topics or communicative tasks based on the student's level and needs. Correction of grammar and pronunciation is done during the class, but the focus is on getting the student to communicate naturally, build confidence in using the language, and learn language rules as he/she goes along.

Students are also provided with a student writing page, where they can write letters and journal entries and complete homework online, to help them build writing skills in English.

Class recordings are also provided for the student to review classes, listen to their own speech, and use it as a reference in improving speaking skills.

IX. What is the ideal way to make good use of phone classes & videoconferencing?

1) What are the differences between phone classes and videoconferencing?

Telephone	Videoconferencing
Voice only	Voice + facial expressions + gestures
Easy access between instructor and student	Requires some time to get access between instructor and student
Focuses on audio communication	Focuses on audio and video communication
Possible to ask only verbal questions	Possible to use text and take notes
Possible to have a short class, e.g. 10 minutes	Appropriate for longer classes of over 20 minutes
Convenient; can be done anywhere	Requires equipment
1:1 classes are the norm	Class sizes can range from 1:1 to 1:15
No exposure of student or instructor	Exposure of both student and instructor
Unlikely that class will be disconnected	Possible momentary disconnections due to technical errors

2) What are the key characteristics of Phone English?

• Anyone can do it at anytime (06 ~ 24) and in any place they want, talking about any topic they would like for about 10 to 20 minutes each time.
• Its systematic approach ensures that the student speaks English regularly.
• The instructor will call the student at a set time every day – whether the student likes it or not! This prevents the person from losing motivation and quitting in the middle.
• One to one classes are geared to the level and aptitude of each student. Levels and learning materials can be adapted to fit the unique requirements of each student through level testing. This makes 1:1 phone classes more efficient than 1: many traditional classes.

• Students can gain confidence and improve fluency more quickly within the privacy of private phone classes, since they can make mistakes without feeling embarrassed in front of others.
• All phone conversations are recorded as an audio file so that students can review each conversation later on.
• The customized learning process ensures more consideration of the student's progress from the instructor and provides strong learning motivation for students. It therefore encourages students to preview and review the learning material on a regular basis.
• Students cannot rely on facial expressions or body language. This forces students to concentrate solely on what the instructor is saying and helps them to rapidly improve their concentration and listening skills.
• Instructors also edit students' essays and diaries, helping students to steadily improve their grammar and vocabulary skills.

X. Reviews from people who have taken phone English classes

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1 년여 수업받은 후기입니다. OOO 2008.12.18

처음 한 달은 수업이 너무 재미있어서 녹취파일 올라오면 다시 들어보고, 영작 블로그 이용도 거의 매일하다시피 했습니다.
수업전화오기 전에 교재예습도 꼬박꼬박 해놓고, 수업 중에 말해보고 싶은 문장은 책에 미리 메모도 해가면서 나름 열정적으로 수업을 받았는데, 한 달이 지나도 스피킹 실력에는 큰 변화가 없는 것 같고, 제자리인 것 같아 슬럼프에 빠졌습니다.
(회화라는 게 한달만에 급!실력 향상이 되진 않겠지만ㅎㅎ 제가 욕심이 좀 커서 그랬는지)

Class review after learning English over the phone for a full year

The first 30 days of learning English over the phone were amazing –I even listened to the recorded transcripts whenever they were posted and visited the English composition web blog almost every day. I used to preview the learning materials before every phone call and make notes on my text books about sentences that I want to say during the class – I was very enthusiastic. However, after the first month, I felt like I was going nowhere; I fell into a slump.
(Well, I understand that speaking ability cannot improve drastically in a month – maybe I was a little bit too ambitious~)

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즐거웠던 1 달... OOO 2008.11.23

주로 교재에 나온 문장들로 대화를 하였는데....
문법적으로 틀린 부분은 선생님이 첨삭해주셔서...
인터넷에서 다시 확인해 볼 수 있었다.
무의식적으로 뱉고 있었던 내 실수들을 알아볼 수 있었다.
전화영어 녹음본도 들을 수 있었는데...
다시 들으면 정말이지 많이많이 챙피하였다.--;;;
나는 민망하고 챙피하다는 이유로 많이 안 들었지만, 꾸준히 확인하면 많이 늘 것 같았다.

A memorable month~~~

We mostly conversed using sentences from the text book~
My teacher corrected sentences that were grammatically wrong and I was able to review them on the website. There, I could spot the mistakes that I made unconsciously.
I could also listen to the recorded audio files of our phone conversations, but it was really, really embarrassing to listen to them! -_-;;;
I did not make much use of them since they were too embarrassing to listen to, but I feel like doing so would have definitely helped a lot~

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잡인터뷰(영어면접) 수업 후기요~ OOO 2008.12.22

수업하실 때, 여력이 되시면 교정 받은 답변을 외워서 말해보는 것도 아주 좋은 방법입니다.

전화영어는 복습보다는 "교재 예습"이 중요하니까 수업시작 전에 교재를 꼭 소리내어 읽어보시고요. 수업할 때 본인 스크립트를 요약해서 안보고 말할 정도가 되면, 이 수업은 100%이상의 효과를 보실 수 있다고 확신합니다.
전화영어 처음하시는 분들, 한 달 수강하시고 그만두지 마시고~ 두 달, 세 달까지는 열심히 공부하시면 **'교재예습, 녹취, 영작'** 이 세 가지를 적절하게 이용하셔야 효과가 있습니다. 처음 시작했을 때보다 월등히 향상된 스피킹 실력을 느끼실 수 있습니다.

Review after a job interview (in English)

It is a good idea to memorize answers that have been corrected by your instructor and try using them during the session if you can do so.

In phone English classes, previewing the learning materials is more important than reviewing them, so make sure you speak them aloud before the session starts.

I can assure you that you will get the most out of phone English learning if you become good enough to speak without looking at your summarized script.

For people who have just started taking the phone English learning course, don't quit after the first month. Try it for at least two to three months. Preview the material, review your recorded phone conversations, and practice English composition. If you practice these three things, it will work! You will feel that your speaking skills have drastically improved from the time you began the course.

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Name Marilou M. Sabado
Neungyule Education Inc.
Phone 0928 274 8685
Email m_sabado@hotmail.com

Biodata
Bachelor of Arts in Communication, University of the Philippines
Post-graduate degree in Language and Literacy Education, University of the Philippines
Head Trainer, Neungyule Eduphone, Inc.

KOREAN LEARNERS' KNOWLEDGE OF THE ENGLISH DITRANSITIVE, TRANSITIVE CONSTRUCTION IN SENTENCE COMPREHESION

Jin Han(University of Hawai'i, Manoa)

1. Introduction

Pinker (1989) and Goldberg (1995, 2006) claim that several sentence forms, such as ditransitive, transitive, caused-motion, and resultative forms pair with particular meanings. For example, the ditransitive sentence form (Subj V Obj1 Obj2) is linked with the meaning of "Subj causes Obj1 to have Obj2), the transitive sentence form (Subj V Obj) is linked with the meaning of "Subj acts on Obj", the caused-motion sentence form (Subj V Obj Obl) is linked with the meaning of "Subj causes Obj to move Obl), and the resultative form (Subj V Obj X_{comp}) is linked with the meaning of "Subj causes Obj to become X_{comp}). Although these researchers share the idea of a relationship between sentence form and meaning, they differ in their positions on the nature of the relation between verbs and constructions.

Pinker (1989) suggests that thematic argument structures are constrained by verb semantics via linking rules which link verb semantic structures with syntactic argument structures based on the evidence that when verb's meaning changes, its argument structure changes as well. Consider the ditransitive sentence form (Subj V Obj1 Obj2), for example, the Obj1 slot should be filled with a possessor ("cause Obj1 to have Obj2") through a linking rule. The verb, *give*, can occur in the ditransitive sentence form (Subj V Obj1 Obj2) because the meaning of *give* is compatible with "cause Obj1 to have Obj2" (e.g. *I give John a book*, from Pinker, 1989), whereas the verb, *drive*, cannot occur in the same sentence form because the meaning of *drive* is not compatible with the meaning, "cause Obj1 to have Obj2," (e.g., **I drive Chicago the car*, from Pinker, 1989).

However, Goldberg (1995) recognizes that verbs and constructions are interrelated but independent, and proposes that certain sentence forms have their own meanings independent of verbs (see Table 1). Working under the assumption then that the relationship of sentence form and meaning which is independent of verbs, is a psychological reality, this cannot be accounted for only by verb semantics. Rather, it is possible that sentence forms themselves carry certain meanings.

Table 1
English argument structure constructions

Form	Example	Meaning
Transitive Construction		
Subj V Obj	*Pat faxed the letter.*	X acts on Y
Ditransitive Construction		
Subj V Obj1 Obj2	*Pat faxed Bill the letter.*	X causes Y to receive Z
Caused-motion Construction		
Subj V Obj $Obl_{path/loc}$	*Pat sneezed the napkin off the table.*	X causes Y to move $Z_{path/loc}$
Resultative Construction		
Subj V Obj X_{comp}	*Pat kissed Bill unconscious.*	X causes Y to become Z_{state}

Adapted from Goldberg, 1995, 2006.

In Second Language Acquisition (SLA), several researchers have focused on the acquisition of argument structures in second language (L2) following Pinker's (1989) framework (Bley-Vroman and Yoshinaga, 1992; Wolfe-Quintero, 1992; Bley-Vroman and Joo, 2001; Joo, 2003; Perpiñán and Montrul, 2006). However, there is little empirical research to explore whether L2 learners are learning the relationship between sentence form and meaning: the "argument structure constructions," as proposed by Goldberg (1995, 2006).

To begin bridging this gap in existing research, the goal of the present study is to investigate, under Goldberg's (1995, 2006) theory, whether adult Korean-speaking learners of English learn English argument structure constructions. For the remainder of this paper, we refer to sentence forms as constructions and the paired meanings as constructional meanings.

II. Research Questions and Predictions

Research Question #1:

Do adult Korean-speaking learners of English have knowledge of the following English constructions: transitive construction (e.g., *Lindsay bought a sweater to please Sam)* and ditransitive construction (e.g., *Lindsay bought Sam a sweater to please him*)?

Prediction #1:

Korean learners of English will demonstrate knowledge of the form-meaning associations of these constructions.

Research Question #2:

Does Koreans' knowledge of English argument structure constructions depend on their proficiency level of English?

Prediction #2:

Korean learners of English at the advanced level will perform better than those at the high-intermediate level.

III. Experiment

3.1. Participants

Participants were native speakers of English who are University of Hawaii (UH) graduate students (n=4) and adult Korean-speaking learners of English who are UH undergraduate and graduate students (n=19). Korean learners of English were randomly assigned.They were divided into two groups according to their proficiency level of English as measured by their performance on Brown's cloze test.

3.2. Materials

A total of 40 pairs of sentences (transitive and ditransitive) were borrowed for this experiment from Kaschak and Glenberg's (2000) study: 20 pairs using innovative denominal verbs and 20 pairs of sentences using conventional verbs. Moreover, 20 pairs of sentences (caused-motion and resultative) using innovative denominal verbs and 20 pairs of sentences (caused-motion and resultative) using conventional verbs were used as filler items. The conventional verbs in caused-motion and resultative sentences were taken from the verbs that Goldberg (1995) used to exemplify those constructions.

3.3. Procedure

Participants were instructed that they were going to read a series of pairs of sentences followed by an inference. They then were instructed to choose which one of the sentence pair most strongly implied that the inference was true by pressing either the button labeled 'A' or the button labeled 'B.'

IV. Results

Participants were first given a pair of ditransitive and transitive sentence (e.g., *Lindsay bought Sam a sweater to please him* and *Lindsay bought a sweater to please Sam*), and then were provided either a ditransitive "transfer" (e.g., *Sam got the sweater*) or transitive "act-on" (e.g., *Lindsay acted on the sweater*) meaning sentence. When participants were asked to choose a sentence form consistent with the "transfer" meaning (e.g., *Sam got the sweater*), they overwhelmingly chose the ditransitive sentence form (e.g., *Lindsay bought Sam a sweater to please him*) for both conventional and innovative verbs, shown in Table 2. According to the results, the native speakers and the advanced learners chose the ditransitive form to nearly the same degree, while the high-intermediate learners tended to choose the transitive form more often than did the native speakers and the advanced learners.

In contrast, when participants were asked to choose a sentence consistent with the "act-on" meaning (*Lindsay acted on the sweater*), they chose the transitive sentence form (*Lindsay bought a sweater to please Sam*) more often for both conventional and innovative verbs, shown in Table 3. Given that innovative verbs have no preestablished meaning, these results demonstrate that sentence

form itself is associated with a particular meaning. Also, given that Korean learners do not have preexisting learned knowledge of innovative verbs, these results demonstrate how sensitive they are to form-meaning pairings that are independent of the verbs occurring in them.

Table 2
The frequency of ditransitive sentence form participants chose when given the ditransitive"transfer" meaning

Verb type	Conventional		Innovative	
Sentence form type	Transitive	Ditransitive	Transitive	Ditransitive
Native (N=4)	0%(0/40)	100%(40/40)	7.5%(3/40)	92.5%(37/40)
Advanced (N=6)	8.3%(5/60)	91.7%(55/60)	10.0%(6/60)	90.0%(54/60)
High-intermediate (N=6)	30.0%(18/60)	70%(42/60)	48.3%(29/60)	51.7%(31/60)

Table 3
The frequency of transitive sentences participants chose when given the transitive "act-on" meaning

Verb type	Conventional		Innovative	
Sentence form type	Transitive	Ditransitive	Transitive	Ditransitive
Native (N=4)	95.0%(38/40)	5.0%(2/40)	100.0%(40/40)	0.0%(0/40)
Advanced (N=6)	98.3%(59/60)	1.7%(1/60)	98.3%(59/60)	1.7%(1/60)
High-intermediate (N=6)	90.0%(54/60)	10.0%(6/60)	95.0%(57/60)	5.0%(3/60)

Statistical support for these conclusions comes from a two-factor within-subjects repeated measures ANOVA, and a between-subjects repeated measures ANOVA in order to observe group differences on performance in this task. The independent variables are constructional meaning type (ditransitive: "transfer" and transitive: "act-on" meaning) and verb type (conventional and innovative), and the dependent variable is the percentage of how often participants chose the ditransitive sentences. There was a predicted main effect of constructional meaning [$F(1,13)=238.154$, $p<.001$], which supports our Prediction #1(*Korean learners of English will demonstrate knowledge of the form-meaning associations*), and indicates that Korean learners are sensitive to the ditransitive "transfer" constructional meaning. Moreover, there were significant differences between groups [$F(2,13)=9.018$, $p=.003$], and we observed an interaction effect between group and meaning [$F(2,13)=6.684$, $p=.010$]. Thus, we conducted comparisons of groups to see each group's effect as post hoc as follows: native-speakers vs. advanced learners, native-speakers vs. high-intermediate learners, and advanced learners vs. high-intermediate learners. Native-speakers and advanced learners were not significantly different in performing this task. However, native-speakers and high-intermediate learners were significantly different ($p=.006$), and advanced learners and high-intermediate learners were significantly different, as well ($p=.013$). These results support our Prediction #2 (*Korean learners of English at the advanced level will perform better than those at the high-intermediate level*). In other words, Korean learners' knowledge of ditransitive "transfer" meaning depends on their proficiency level of English.

V. Discussion

1) Do adult Korean-speaking learners of English have knowledge of the following English constructions: transitive (e.g., *Lindsay bought a sweater to please Sam)* and ditransitive (e.g., *Lindsay bought Sam a sweater to please him)*?

The data from the sentence-choice task tends to support our Prediction #1 (*Korean learners of English will demonstrate knowledge of the form-meaning associations*). In other words, Korean learners are likely to be sensitive to pairings of particular sentence forms and the associated meanings. Specifically, when the meaning sentence implied "transfer," Korean learners chose the ditransitive sentence more than the transitive sentence. This was true for both conventional and innovative verbs. Given that Korean learners have no preexisting learned knowledge of innovative verbs and they have probably not acquired complete knowledge of conventional verbs, these data demonstrate that Korean

learners are influenced by English argument structure constructions, as claimed by Goldberg (1995, 2006). The present results agree with Kaschak and Glenberg's (2001) L1 evidence that native speakers of English use the ditransitive and transitive constructions when comprehending sentences. The preliminary results presented here and Kaschak and Glengerg's results cannot be accounted for purely by the semantics of verbs because they used innovative verbs with no inherent verbal semantics. Rather, these results could be attributed to the association of particular forms and meanings independent of the verbs that occur in them.

2) Does Koreans' knowledge of English argument structure constructions depend on their proficiency level of English?

We observed that Korean learners' knowledge of English argument structure constructions is dependent on their proficiency level of English due to the limited number of participants in the present study, further research would be needed in order to generalize these findings to a broader context.

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Jin Han
Second Language Studies
Univeristy of Hawai'i, Manoa
Phone: 010-2722-9917
Email: jinhan1699@gmail.com
Bio data
Teaching Experience

Present	Bupyeong Girls' High School; Incheon, South Korea
2002-2006	Yunsu Girls' High School; Incheon, South Korea
2001	Cheonghak Junior High School; Incheon, South Korea

Education

2006-2008	M.A. in Second Language Studies; University of Hawai`i at Manoa
2005	TESOL Certificate Program; Sookmyung Women's University; Seoul, South Korea
1995-2000	B.A. in Education and English Language & Literature; Sookmyung Women's University; Seoul, South Korea

Language Transfer in L2 and L3 Learning--- Leading the Positive Transfer

Zhang Zhenai
Yanbian University, China

In China, the minority English education belongs to the third language education and third language learning . The issue is that we are teaching English to the students who are the bilinguals , but we are not clear how the language transfer happens during the third language learning. This paper focuses on the characteristics of the minority English education as a third language and sets out a discussion on the transfer from L1 and L2 to L3 teaching and learning .The author holds that the answers to this issue hinge on the researcher's views on the role of L1 and L2 in L3. Normally speaking , it is easy to recognize the presence of L1 and L2 constitute double obstacles to L3 learning. Nevertheless, this paper is going to lead the discussion about the English education based upon bilingualism, such as characteristics of minority English education at the initial stage of English learning and the inter-relationship between the ethnic minority language, Chinese and English from a positive perspective, and try to prove the potential cognitive advantages for the minority English Education. as a third language learning.

A Measurement of the English Lexical Ability of Korean University Students with Hearing and Visual Impairments

Jeongwan Lim (Daegu University)

I. Introduction

Education for students with impairments has been subject to discussion among practitioners. However, not much attention has been directed to English education for college students with impairments. To address this issue, this study examines the English lexical ability of students with hearing and visual impairments. A total of 146 Korean university students participated in this study. They were divided into as one control group and two experimental groups. The control group consisted of 50 university students with non-impairments and the first experimental group, 46 university students of visual impairments and the second group, 50 university students with hearing impairments. Each group also consisted of 23 or 25 students each from two different universities in Cheon-An and Gyeong-San in Korea. The data were collected by the questionnaire including their background information and the measurement of their lexical ability. The first part of the questionnaire was made up of 10 questions on their personal information such as gender, age and major. The second part had a total of 63 English lexical questions and it was divided into the three parts, each consisting of 21 vocabularies with highest frequency, selected from the primary, middle and high school English textbooks in Korea. They were analyzed by frequency, t-test and X_2 test of the SAS 8.2 statistical program.

The findings of the study are as follows: (a) the lexical ability of the students with hearing impairments is significantly less than the one of the control group and the group of students with visual impairments, especially on the level of middle and high school lexis; (b) the relationship between the lexical ability of the students with hearing and visually impairments and their background information regarding their hearing and! visually impaired age and their impairing level was found to be somewhat correlated; and (c) more importantly, the hearing and visually impaired students' difficulty about learning English is different from the one of the control group and they were less exposed to learn English from the beginning.

In conclusion, the study enters into the discussions in which guidelines for future research around this topic, guidelines for appropriate EFL materials for university students with hearing and visual impairments, some teaching principles for university students with hearing and visual impairments are suggested. The discussion presented in this paper can lead to a better understanding of the reality of the hearing and visually impaired students' lexical ability, which can help develop, adapt and disseminate sound and practical information concerning the English lexical ability of university students with hearing and visual impairments.

II. Definition of Visual and Hearing Impairments

III. Method

Table 3

Number of Participants

group	SVI	SHI	SNI	Total
Cheon-An	23	25	25	73
Gyeong-San	23	25	25	73
Total	46	50	50	146

Table 4

Participants' Profile

group	SVI	SHI	SNI	Total

Gender	M	25(54%)	35(30%)	25(50%)	85(58%)
	F	21(46%)	15(70%)	25(50%)	61(42%)
Age	18~19	7(15%)	3(6%)	21(42%)	31(21%)
	20~24	30(65%)	43(86%)	25(50%)	98(67%)
	25 이상	9(20%)	4(8%)	4(8%)	17(12%)

IV. Findings

Table 11

Lexical ability of students with visual impairments

Level		N	Mean	SD	F	t	DF
Primary	N 대학	23	19.21	1.3803	1.48	4.08	31.7
	D 대학	23	20.52	0.6653			
Middle	N 대학	23	13.00	5.1962	1.97	3.14	44
	D 대학	23	17.17	3.7008			
High	N 대학	23	8.60	5.3998	1.01	3.14	44
	D 대학	23	14.17	5.3653			

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Table 12

Lexical ability of students with hearing impairments

Level		N	Mean	SD	F	t	DF
Primary	N 대학	25	12.96	8.0647	3.21	-1.60	37.6
	D 대학	25	15.92	4.4993			
Middle	N 대학	25	6.32	7.2613	1.44	0.23	48
	D 대학	25	5.88	6.0575			
High	N 대학	25	5.84	7.3806	2.06	1.02	48
	D 대학	25	4	5.1397			

p>.05

Table 13

Lexical ability of students with none impairments

Level		N	Mean	SD	F	t	DF
Primary	N 대학	25	20.44	0.7118	1.48	0.18	48
	D 대학	25	20.4	0.866			
Middle	N 대학	25	15.92	4.3867	1.95	0.74	48
	D 대학	25	15.12	3.1401			
High	N 대학	25	11.92	7.0411	2.07	0.33	48
	D 대학	25	11.36	4.8894			

p>.05

Table 19

Comparison of lexical ability of SVI & SHI at primary level

Group		Mean	SD	F	t	DF
SVI	46	19.87	1.25		-5.68***	

SHI		14.44	6.63	27.81		52.8
Total	96					

***P<.0001

Table 20

Comparison of lexical ability of SVI & SHI at middle level

Group		Mean	SD	F	t	DF
SVI	46	15.08	4.93	1.80	-7.58***	90.2
SHI		6.10	6.62			
Total	96					

***P<.0001

Table 21

Comparison of lexical ability of SVI & SHI at high level

Group		Mean	SD	F	t	DF
SVI	46	11.39	6.02	1.12	-5.12***	93.9
SHI		4.92	6.36			
Total	96					

***P<.0001

V. Conclusion

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Jeongwan Lim
Department of English Education
Daegu University
Phone: (053) 850-4125
Email: jwlim@daegu.ac.kr

Biodata

Jeongwan Lim is professor of the Department of English Education at Daegu University in Korea. After receiving her doctoral degree from Teachers College, Columbia University in NYC, 2002, she has been teaching EFL to university students in Korea. Her research interests are teacher training, reading and writing education, CALL, English education for students with impairments. She is a former vice president of the Modern English Education Society in Korea. Her email address is jwlim@daegu.ac.kr.

An Overview of Writing Programs in U.S. Universities

Sookyung Cho (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

The necessity of English writing instruction is increasing at Korean universities, but very few guidelines or blueprints are available to aid them in improving their writing programs. Most studies on English writing instruction in Korea have focused on how to teach writing effectively in the Korean context where English is spoken as a foreign language (김한창, 1999; 문영인, 2000; 박남식, 1982; 유재임, 2000; 정혜선, 양병곤, & 유제분, 2005; Shim, 2006). An investigation of writing programs in U.S. universities, which have a relatively longer history, can provide valuable insight into running an effective writing program in Korea. This presentation aims to provide an overview of the writing programs in U.S. universities, which have exerted great effort to create and modify their writing programs according to their students' needs since the late 19th century.

U.S. universities had already begun teaching writing from the late nineteenth century, but since the 1950s, when a larger number of students—such as baby boomers and veterans of the Vietnam War—flooded into the universities, their modes of writing instruction have been expanded and reinforced at the same time (Nystrand, 1993; 2003). The number of writing assignments writing instructors need to grade has increased in proportion to the increase in the number of university students. In order to cope with this problem, U.S. universities have come up with a division of labor between teaching literature and teaching writing (Strickland, 2001). Some universities created sub-Freshmen writing courses under the department of English, while others created a separate program called Composition and Rhetoric for mainly teaching writing. Now that the latter category has become more common in many universities, Composition and Rhetoric programs not only take responsibility for running writing programs, but also produce a majority of writing instructors and coordinators. A survey was conducted on these writing instructors and coordinators to investigate the current status of writing programs in the United States as well their views on the future of writing programs.

II. Method and Participants

A survey was developed to inquire about the following: 1) the number of required writing courses by major, 2) the types of writing courses offered in cooperation with other academic disciplines, 3) the major departments or centers in charge of the writing programs across campus, 4) the population of writing instructors, and 5) the future of writing programs. The survey was sent to the listservs of the two nationwide associations of writing instructors and coordinators in the United States: Writing Across the Curriculum and Writing Program Administrators. Forty-three instructors, directors, coordinators of writing programs responded, and following are the analysis results of their survey responses.

III. Results and Analysis

A chi-square test was conducted to investigate whether the number of writing requirements differed by major. As can be seen in Table 1, very few respondents marked "more than four"; therefore, the categories of three and four were collapsed and the category of "Not Applicable and Don't Know" was dropped for the chi-square test. The test results reveal that the observed difference among the colleges is not statistically significant at the nominal type 1 error rate of .05 (χ^2=8.63, *df*=12, *p*=.73). That is, the writing course requirements were not different across majors.

TABLE 1. Number of Writing Requirements Depending on a Student's Major

Number		1	2	3	4	or more	Not Applicable or Don't Know
Humanities	N	9	22	7	2	0	1
	%	22%	54%	17%	5%	0%	2%
Natural sciences	N	8	23	3	1	0	3
	%	21%	61%	8%	3%	0%	8%
Social sciences	N	8	22	6	0	0	3
	%	21%	56%	15%	0%	0%	8%
Engineering	N	6	16	2	0	0	14
	%	16%	42%	5%	0%	0%	37%
Education	N	4	17	7	0	0	9
	%	11%	46%	19%	0%	0%	24%
Business	N	5	21	4	0	0	8
	%	13%	55%	11%	0%	0%	21%
Other	N	1	15	4	0	0	12
	%	3%	47%	12%	0%	0%	38%

Secondly, most writing courses are offered by the Department of English, Composition and Rhetoric programs, and writing centers. Sixty-three percent of the respondents (27 out of 43) answered that the three programs are in charge of writing courses and programs, while 30% of the respondents (13 out of 43) stated that their writing courses are offered by the three programs in cooperation with other academic disciplines. This strong trend to connect writing courses to content courses was noticeable in respondents' open-ended answers to the question asking about any writing courses unique to their universities. Twenty-four respondents introduced writing courses offered within the students' disciplines (e.g. writing for psychology, writing for sociology, and writing for social/natural sciences) as their unique writing courses. Additionally, out of the 29 respondents who were not satisfied with their current writing programs, 16 respondents emphasized the necessity to expand writing courses by relating them to the courses in other disciplines, and predicted that this necessity will be emphasized more in the future.

IV. Conclusion and Implications

The survey results reveal that most universities require students to fulfill at least two writing courses before graduation regardless of their majors, and that increasing number of instructors, coordinators, and directors in charge of these writing courses and programs are trained in the field of Composition and Rhetoric. Also, in an academic atmosphere that considers writing as a social interaction between writers and readers in certain communities, writing instructors and coordinators have put effort into relating writing courses to the disciplines in which the students actually work, and they estimate that these efforts will be more expanded in the future. Korean universities can consider if, and to what extent, these trends reflect writing instruction in Korea where English is taught as a foreign language. For this purpose, further studies are necessary to investigate the current status of English writing programs in Korea, e.g. what kinds of writing programs are run in Korean universities, how they are run, and who is in charge of these programs.

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Sookyung Cho
College English
Seoul National University
Phone: 02-880-5874
Email: sookyungcho@snu.ac.kr

Biodata

Sookyung Cho is a full-time lecturer at College English, Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea. A graduate of the University of Wisconsin, Madison (Ph.D. Second Language Acquisition, 2008) and the University of Hawaii, Manoa (M.A. Second Language Studies, 2002), Sookyung Cho has had a strong interest in second language writing, in particular, multiliteracy development of English language learners both in classroom setting and outside of school.

The English Article use by Non-native English teachers in Korea: Task-Type Variability in Interlanguage Performance and its Pedagogical Implications

Hyunah Ahn (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

The English article system always poses a problem to L2 learners whether their first language has a equivalent article system or not (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999). The present paper investigates the English article use by Korean EFL learners in Korea. One thing noteworthy in this study is that the participants whose metalinguistic knowledge and real-time production skills in the English article system are measured and analyzed are incumbent English teachers currently involved in the English education dynamics in Korea. Korean EFL learners' notorious poor performance in productive skills has been pointed out as a flaw of the Korean English education system for a long time. Thus, if there is any discrepancy between different task types (a written test and a spontaneous speech) will be investigated and discussed.

Some studies looked at the development of the L2 English article system from a perspective of language transfer (Sharma 2005; Ionin, Zubizarreta et al. 2008) while others have maintained the position that L2 learners go through developmental stages of comprehending the semantic classification (Tarone 1988; Master 1997; Butler 2002; Park 2004). The current study follows the tradition of the latter by using the semantic wheel of dichotomous specificity and definiteness and by comparing the participants' performance in terms of the semantic noun phrase types.

To find out any possible performance variability in terms of task types and the semantic noun phrase types, the following two research questions are to be dealt with.

1. Can Korean speaking non-native English teachers in Korea use the English articles invariably well in different types of tasks?
2. Can Korean speaking non-native English teachers in Korea use the English articles invariably well for different semantic types of Noun Phrases?

By investigating the two major issues, this study will have important pedagogical implications and will shed a new light on the current Korean English education policy.

II. Theoretical Background

Coding

Dividing noun phrase types according to the binary features of specificity ([±SR]/Specific Reference) and definiteness ([±HK]/Hearer's Knowledge) is now a part of the English article research protocol. Started by (Bickerton 1981), and modified by (Huebner 1983), adding Type 5 named 'conventional use,' the categorization of four semantic noun phrase types requiring different articles has been widely used or at least cited by many researchers (Tarone 1988); Master 1997; Young 1995; Butler 2002; Jarvis; 2002; Liu and Gleason 2002). While Bickerton (1981), the proponent of the idea, did not include idiomatic expressions or conventional uses of the English articles into analysis, researchers who adopted the idea modified the system and created Type 5 for 'conventional use.' (Butler 2002; Park 2004) However, the current research proposes that conventional uses or idiomatic expressions all be classified into one of the four traditional types established by Bickerton (1981).

The Zero vs. Null articles

When a noun phrase is used alone without a preceding determiner, ø is used to mark the empty spot among language teachers and linguists. According to traditional categorizations (Bickerton 1981; Huebner 1983; Master 1987), the zero article sign can be used for Types 1, 3 and 4. This, the zero article, is used before a plural count noun or before a mass noun while the null article is used before a noun with such complete familiarity that a definite article is no longer required. Incorporating

Jesperson's (1949) three stages of familiarity, the null article was classified as Type 2 since the null article indicating complete familiarity and the definite article with both specific reference and hearer's knowledge assume familiarity of the noun phrase to both parties of interlocutors.

Idiomatic expressions and word chunks

Previous studies categorized the English article uses in idiomatic expressions and word chunks into Type 5 (Butler 2002; Park 2004) or left them out of analysis (Bickerton 1981; Huebner 1983). However, the present study classifies them into one of the four categories since a closer look at the article use in those noun phrases in idiomatic expressions or word chunks all can be explained by Bickerton's (1981) system. For example, in a classroom conversation, a teacher's instruction as follows is commonly heard but the teacher rarely refers to any 'specific' look, not to mention the students do not know or care what 'look' the teacher is talking about. Thus, 'a' in take a look is classified as Type 4 in this case.

Teacher: Everyone, please take a look at the handout I just gave out.

Therefore, instead of creating a separate category that cannot be explained by the binary features of [±SR] and [±HK], the noun phrases and their accompanying articles will be all put into the original system of four semantic noun phrase types. This coding system can be justified in that even idiomatic expressions and the noun phrases whose use or nonuse of the articles is considered 'cultural' provide L2 learners with environments to make errors. If all L2 learners perform invariably well in terms of the 'conventional' article use, the category Type 5 should be created and learners' article use regarding that type should not be taken into consideration. However, L2 learners struggle with their null article use because they lack the knowledge that noun phrases with complete familiarity does not require even the definite article. Also, idiomatic expressions or word chunks seem to provide no clue as to what article should be used in such environments. Hence, the present study will use a new semantic wheel modified from previous studies mentioned above.

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III. Method

Participants

Seventeen primary and secondary non-native English teachers in Korea (1 male and 16 female) participated in this study. The participants were incumbent teachers who were enrolled at an Intensive In-service Teacher Training Program at a major university in Kyonggi, Korea at the time of study. Their overall proficiency varied within the population from quite advanced to low intermediate levels. The information on their English language proficiency is based on the results of the placement test they took at the beginning of the training program.

Tasks

To address the first research question, two different tasks were given to the participants. One was a cloze test in which participants were asked to fill in blanks with one of the four options (a, an, the, ø) and the other was a requirement for their training program. The teachers were asked to give demo lessons twice throughout the semester and the videotaped demo lessons were used as data to analyze the English article use of the participants.

Procedure

The participants were first given a survey sheet asking their background information from majors in college to English teaching and learning experience. After filling up the survey sheet, participants were asked to work on a cloze test including 5 sample items and 97 test items. There was a thirty-minute time limit imposed. After the in-class session, the participants were interviewed regarding the answers they gave on the cloze test. Demo lessons were videotaped throughout the semester. Approximately eight weeks after the training started, the participants were scheduled to give a demo lesson each for 30 to 45 minutes and the second round was scheduled for the end of the semester. The videos, which were made to analyze and give tips on their lessons in English in class, were collected under their consent and transcribed. Because of great variability in their language proficiency and the

amount of time they used to give demo lessons, some spoke no more than 1000 words even when their lessons were finished while others took no more than 15 minutes to speak 1000 words. To make the comparison easier, only the first thousand words each participant spoke were transcribed and analyzed.

Analysis

Between the two methods explained in (Gass and Selinker 2008)), one of which counts only the correct suppliance in obligatory contexts and the other considers the incorrect suppliance in non-obligatory contexts, the present paper uses the second method to see the degree to which the participants can use the English articles. The corpus made out of the transcripts of the demo lessons given by the participants were studied in terms of the number of obligatory contexts, correct / incorrect suppliance of the English articles in obligatory contexts, and incorrect suppliance in non-obligatory contexts. They were counted in total and also in the semantic noun phrase types.

IV. Results

The quantitative analysis of the collected data shows that the null hypotheses to address the research questions can both be rejected. The first null hypothesis was that there was no difference in learners' English article use between two different task types. A repeated measure t-test shows that there is a significant difference in learner performance between the two different task types: a written cloze test and a real-time oral production, $t = 10.879$, $p < .000$.

Table 1. Mean percentages of correct article use in two different tasks

	Means	SD
% of Correct Article Choice in Cloze Test	80.05	8.79
% of Correct Article Use in Spontaneous Speech	59.07	10.92

Unlike the results from Tarone and Parrish (1988), the results from the current study shows that the percentage of correct article use in a spontaneous speech is significantly lower than that in the cloze test. This proves a layperson's assumption that Koreans are good at exams but not as good at productive skills when it comes to a foreign language. Thus, the answer to Question 1 was yes. There is a significant difference in L2 learners' performance between the two different tasks.

The second null hypothesis that there is no difference in terms of learner performance among the four semantic noun phrase types is also rejected because a multivariate ANOVA test shows that there is a significant difference in L2 learners' performance among the four different semantic noun phrase types, $F(3, 14) = 18.284$, $p<.000$. Through a paired t-test, it was found out that there is no statistically significant difference in learner performance between T1 and T4 and between Type 2 and 3. Table 2 shows the result of the paired t-test of all possible pairs of noun phrase types.

Table 2. L2 learner performance variation in different NP types.

	Paired Differences		t	df	Sg. (2-tailed)
	Means	SD			
T1 - T2	-26.38	21.05	-5.17	16	.000
T1 - T3	-18.90	27.03	-2.88	16	.011
T1 - T4	-9.60	20.38	-1.94	16	.070
T2 - T3	7.48	19.53	1.58	16	.134
T2 - T4	16.78	9.91	6.98	16	.000
T3 - T4	9.30	17.14	2.24	16	.040

From the right most column, it can be inferred that the difference between Type 1 and Type 4, and between Type 2 and Type 3 since they have p values greater than the .05 significance level.

V. Discussion

It is unfortunate that many other interesting facts gained from this study cannot be dealt with in the limited pages here. When task types and the NP types were both taken into consideration, interesting results were observed. There was one NP type that did not vary in terms of learner performance between two different task types: Type 2. Learners performed invariably well when it came to NP Type 2. Just from this observation, it is unclear yet if the real-time production skills in NP Type 2 has developed more than in other NP types or if the metalinguistic knowledge or more receptive knowledge that can be realized through a cloze test have developed more in other NP Types, that is, NP Types 1, 3, and 4.

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VI. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

This study examined the learner performance variability in terms of the English articles by task types and noun phrase types. L2 learners were found to perform differently when they were required to do different tasks and when they encountered different noun phrase types. These results have very important pedagogical implications in that the participants are incumbent teachers and the lower performance in real-time oral production skills that some of the participants showed seem to testify that a lot of teachers who are currently asked to teach English only through English in the near future might not be all ready as the policy makers hope them to be.

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Hyunah Ahn
Department of English Language and Literature
Seoul National University
Phone: 016 9522 4051
Email: lifemath@snu.ac.kr

Biodata:
She has received her M.A. degree from Michigan State University and is currently a doctoral student at Seoul National University.

International Graduate Students' Needs in English Listening and Speaking Skills

Yoo-Ree Chung, Heesung Grace Jun, & Hye-won Lee
(Iowa State University)

I. Introduction

One of the difficulties that international students face while studying in English-speaking countries is oral communication (Kim, 2006; Leki, 2001; Morita, 2004). However, there is paucity of research addressing these students' needs in speaking and listening skills (Ferris, 1998; Ferris & Tagg, 1996a, 1996b; Kim, 2006; Morita, 2004). In this paper, we attempt to fill this gap by conducting a needs analysis that builds upon Kim (2006, 2007) and Ferris and Tagg (1996a, 1996b).

The current study is adapted from Kim (2006) and focuses on the speaking and listening needs of international graduate students at a large research university in the United States. The main goal of the study is to investigate the needs of the target students by consulting multiple sources and using multiple methods (Long, 2005). Besides the perceptions of students, we also seek what kind of oral communication tasks subject-matter instructors require in their courses and how they perceive international graduate students' difficulties in those areas. In addition, supplementing survey questionnaires with face-to-face interviews with some of the respondents will allow us to find more detailed information by adopting different data collection methods and enable us to "investigate possible alternative interpretations […] in the data that do not fit with an interpretation suggested by other data in the study" (Bachman, 2006, p. 200).

II. Research Questions

The current needs analysis regarding English listening/speaking skills of international graduate students is guided by three research questions adapted from Ferris (1998) and Kim (2006).

1. What are international graduate students' perceptions of the aural/oral skills required in their subject-matter courses, their own difficulties, and willingness to improve in those areas?
2. What are some factors that underlie international graduate students' needs in listening and speaking skills?
3. What are the instructors' perceptions of their students' needs in listening and speaking?

III. Methods

As an attempt to strengthen the robustness of the research findings, we collected data from two source groups (international graduate students enrolled in ESL courses and instructors of content-matter courses in various disciplines) using two needs analysis methods (semi-structured interviews and survey questionnaires). We first asked graduate students enrolled in ESL writing and speaking courses at a large U.S. university in Fall 2008 to complete a paper-and-pencil survey questionnaire and collected 80 usable responses. Following that, we conducted semi-structured interviews with eight volunteer students from the response group. Sixty-nine percent of the 80 student respondents spoke Chinese as their first language, followed by Korean (12%) and others including Turkish, Spanish, and Thai (19%). Seventy-one percent of the students were in science/engineering majors, and 61% were male. Half of the interviewees spoke Chinese as their first language. As a complementary source group, we sent out an online survey questionnaire to the instructors in 10 randomly-selected departments and collected 31 responses from 9 departments in a variety of academic disciplines, including economics, agronomy, biological sciences, curriculum and instruction, and mathematics.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. Student Questionnaire

1) Listening Skills Expected or Required in Academic Disciplines

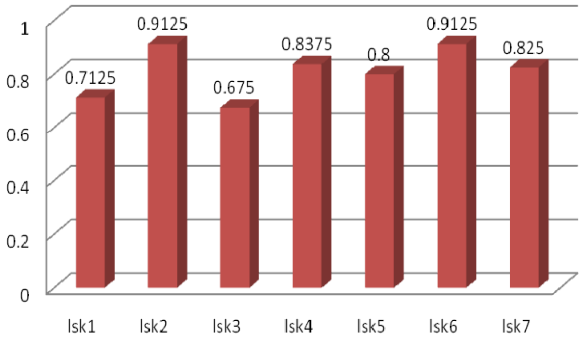
Students were first asked to choose all listening skills that were expected or required in their academic disciplines, the result of which is shown in Figure 1.

2) Difficulties and Need for Improvement in Listening Skills.

Figure 2 shows the weights of the students' responses for difficulties and need for improvement. Students' difficulties in the listening skills do not coincide with their priorities for improvement. The respondents felt that lsk6 was the most difficult among the given listening skills, and they also wanted to improve this skill the most. In terms of difficulty, the students ranked lsk4 and lsk7 with weights at 5.696 and 5.692, respectively.

FIGURE 1

Students' Perceptions of Listening Skills Required or Expected in Their Academic Disciplines (n=80)



lsk1: Note-taking skills
lsk2: Listening to professors' lectures and questions
lsk3: Listening to instructions and classmates' questions during lab sessions
lsk4: Listening to classmates' comments, opinions, and questions during whole-class discussions
lsk5: Listening to classmates' comments, opinions, and questions during group discussions (both in and outside the classroom)
lsk6: Listening to presentations at a departmental seminar or a conference
lsk7: Listening to questions at a departmental seminar or a conference

FIGURE 2

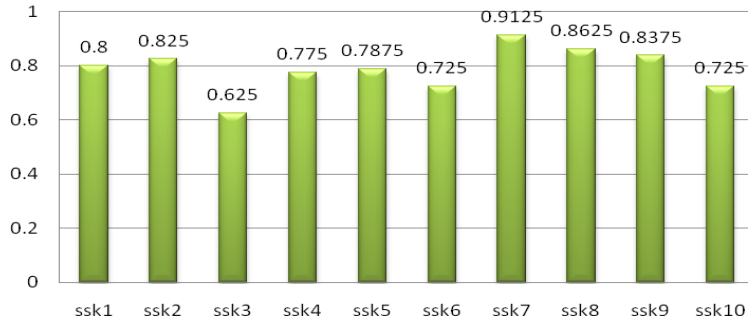
Difficulties and Priorities of Listening Skills for International Graduate Students (n=73)

	lsk1	lsk2	lsk3	lsk4	lsk5	lsk6	lsk7
Difficulty	5.321	5.069	5.355	5.696	5.429	5.930	5.692
Improvement	5.556	5.788	5.148	5.524	5.351	5.826	5.205

3) Speaking Skills Expected or Required in Academic Disciplines

The respondents perceived presentation skills in various contexts including answering questions as a presenter (ssk7, ssk8, ssk9) as the most important (See Figure 3). The results also suggest that international graduate students may consider asking questions of professors in and outside the classroom (ssk1 and ssk2) relatively important. On the other hand, the speaking skills related to participating in lab sessions or whole class/group discussions (ssk3 through ssk6) appear to be regarded as less important or optional.

FIGURE 3
Students' Perceptions of Speaking Skills Required or Expected in Their Academic Disciplines (n=80)



ssk1: Asking professors questions in class
ssk2: Talking with professors outside the classroom (e.g., during office hours)
ssk3: Expressing opinions or asking questions during lab sessions
ssk4: Expressing opinions or asking questions during whole-class discussions
ssk5: Expressing opinions or asking questions during group discussions in the classroom
ssk6: Expressing opinions or asking questions during group project or study group sessions outside the classroom
ssk7: Making presentations or leading discussions in class
ssk8: Presenting or defending your research at a departmental seminar or a conference
ssk9: Answering questions as a presenter at a departmental seminar or a conference
ssk10: Asking presenters questions at a departmental seminar or a conference.

4) Difficulties and Need for Improvement in Speaking Skills

As shown in Figure 4, the discrepancies in converted weights in the speaking skills were smaller than those observed for the listening skills. The respondents indicated that the presentation skills (ssk7 through ssk9) were the speaking skills they most struggled with and thus wanted to improve most.

FIGURE 4
Difficulties and Priorities of Speaking Skills for International Graduate Students
(Note: n1 for difficulty=76, n2 for improvement=75)

	ssk1	**ssk2**	**ssk3**	**ssk4**	**ssk5**	**ssk6**	**ssk7**	**ssk8**	**ssk9**	**ssk10**
Difficulty	7.067	6.923	7.250	7.857	7.821	7.774	8.870	8.571	8.225	7.219
Improvement	7.655	7.296	7.091	7.943	7.265	7.645	8.490	8.543	7.923	7.185

2. Students' Comments on Their Needs in Listening and Speaking Skills

1) Responses to Open-Ended Questions

The respondents repeatedly mentioned the following as reasons for listening difficulty: (a) lack of vocabulary, (b) fast speech of domestic classmates, (c) various international accents, and (d) cognitive load of note-taking while listening to lectures. In addition, many respondents mentioned the fear of missing information during whole-class discussions as a primary reason for wanting to improve their listening skills.

The respondents proposed five major factors as the reasons behind their perceived difficulty in speaking: (a) affective barriers, (b) cognitive load in organizing thoughts while speaking, (c) lack of productive vocabulary, (d) pronunciation, and (e) cultural differences. Furthermore, respondents wanted to improve speaking skills for the following reasons: (a) for successful careers in the future; (b) to express ideas effectively and efficiently; (c) to not be ashamed of their English; (d) for teaching or research purposes; and (e) to increase knowledge in their fields by asking questions.

2) Students' Comments during Face-to-Face Interviews

Little of the information provided by the interviewees was new to us, and their comments reinforced the questionnaire responses. However, most of the interviewees were not interested in taking a speaking course despite the finding that many international students are eager to improve their speaking skills. Many interviewees mentioned lack of time as the primary reason. Many interviewees also appear to

prefer informal communication opportunities with native speakers of English over formal language instruction.

3. Professor Questionnaire

The instructor questionnaire first asked a series of questions regarding the professors' perceptions of the English listening skills of the international graduate students they teach. Table 1 below summarizes the responses.

TABLE 1
Professors' Perceptions of International Graduate Students' English Listening Skills

	Expected of students	Important for students (out of 10)	Students have difficulty
Note-taking	86.7%	7.75	12.0%
Listening to instructor's lectures and questions	**93.3%**	**9.26**	**76.0%**
Listening to instructions and classmates' questions (lab session)	56.7%	8.24	28.0%
Listening to classmates' comments, opinions, and questions (whole-class)	**93.3%**	**8.38**	**80.0%**
Listening to classmates' comments, opinions, and questions (group discussions in and out of class)	86.7%	8.27	40.0%
Listening to presentations	86.7%	8.31	28.0%

The professors' perceptions of international graduate students' English speaking skills are summarized below in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Professors' Perceptions of International Graduate Students' English Speaking Skills

	Expected of students	Important for students (out of 10)	Students have difficulty
Asking questions in class	**96.7%**	**8.48**	**85.2%**
Answering questions in class	**90.0%**	8.34	**74.1%**
Expressing opinions or asking questions (whole-class or group discussion)	**90.0%**	8.39	66.7%
Expressing opinions or asking questions (lab sessions)	23.3%	**8.56**	18.5%
Expressing opinions or asking questions (group outside class)	50.0%	8.19	33.3%
Making presentations in class	66.7%	**8.61**	48.1%
Leading discussions in class	30.0%	7.71	29.6%
Talking with professors outside class	73.3%	7.78	33.3%

According to responses to the open-ended question, the professors were sympathetic about the language difficulties that non-native speakers face, and a few even took proactive measures to accommodate such students. Many professors expressed that there is variation in the language competence of international students, with some students performing just as well as native speakers but others seriously lacking in communication skills. The professors also pointed out the importance of the role of culture in effective communication as well as the importance of written communication. Lastly, professors expressed concern over the future job prospects of international students as being affected by the possession of strong oral communication skills.

V. Conclusion

While the student respondents showed strong needs in listening to lectures and communication skills related to presentations, the instructor respondents noted skills that are more applicable within the courses they teach. The findings particularly suggest that speaking courses should be designed to help ESL/FL graduate students develop their presentation skills and thus prepare for future careers in academia. For future research, we propose approaching this issue from a qualitative perspective by conducting classroom observations and prolonged unstructured interviews with both source groups. More studies should also address undergraduate students' needs from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives.

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Yoo-Ree Chung, Heesung Grace Jun, Hye-won Lee
Department of English
Applied Linguistics and Technology
Iowa State University
Phone: +1-515-294-2180
Email: yrchung@iastate.edu, gracejun@iastate.edu, hwlee@iastate.edu

Biodata

Yoo-Ree Chung is a PhD student in Applied Linguistics and Technology at Iowa State University where she has been working for the English Placement Test.

Heesung Grace Jun is a PhD student in Applied Linguistics and Technology at Iowa State University where she teaches academic writing to undergraduate students.

Hye-won Lee is a PhD student in Applied Linguistics and Technology at Iowa State University where she teaches first year composition, as well as does her coursework.

The Role of English Proficiency in Chinese Learners' Complaints

Chi-yin Hong (Diwan University)
Su-chin Shih (National Kaohsiung Normal University)

I. Introduction

To complain appropriately is difficult. This study examined two research questions:

1. What are the complaint behaviors of learner groups at different proficiency levels?
2. What are the differences in native Chinese and English speakers' and learners' complaints?

Selinker (1972) termed the language learners' second language (L2) system as interlanguage (IL). Among all aspects, the pragmatics of the learners' IL system, i.e. interlanguage pragmatics, has perhaps attracted the most research interest.

Pragmatic competence is important since the lack of it leads to intercultural miscommunication. It is the ability to relate utterances to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Learners' pragmatic competence could be affected by their proficiency and L1 transfer. Some studies have suggested a negative correlation between transfer and proficiency, e.g. Taylor (1975), while others, such as Takahashi and Beebe (1993), claimed that the two variables were positively related.

II. Participants and Instrument

Four groups participated in this study, including high- and low-proficiency English learners and native speakers of English and Chinese. Each group consisted of ten members. An oral discourse completion task was used to collect speech data. There were ten scenarios, each containing two variables: the addressee's gender along with either status or with social distance. The imposition levels of these scenarios were constant.

Collected data were arranged into six complaint strategies: (1) hint, (2) disapproval, (3) request for repair, (4) explicit complaint, (5) accusation, and (6) opting out. Next, Chi-square analyses of the four groups' strategy use were conducted. In addition, the subjects' use of lexical repertoire, further divided into upgraders and downgraders, was examined and processed by Chi-square analyses.

III. Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the frequency counts of the six strategies used by the four groups. It also indicates that the native English speakers (NE) and the learners of both proficiency groups (HL and LL) preferred requests most, while the native Chinese group (NC) favored explicit complaints. There were significant differences in their overall strategy use ($p < .001$) and the frequency of strategy use between any two of the groups. Significant differences existed in hints, requests or explicit complaints, with HL utilizing hints and NE using the other two strategies most often (see Table 2).

Table 1 *Frequency and the Percentage of Complaint Strategies Produced by the Four Groups*

Strategy \ Group	NE	HL	LL	NC
Hint	35 (10%)	62 (21%)	34 (12%)	31 (14%)
Disapproval	57 (17%)	45 (15%)	46 (17%)	27 (13%)
Request	133 (39%)	118 (39%)	94 (34%)	53 (25%)
Explicit complaint	97 (29%)	60 (20%)	88 (32%)	88 (41%)
Accusation	5 (2%)	6 (2%)	5 (2%)	12 (6%)
Opting out	10 (3%)	9 (3%)	6 (2%)	3 (1%)
Total	337 (100%)	300 (100%)	273 (100%)	214 (100%)

Note. The percentage is shown in the parenthesis.

In addition, the requests were further categorized into indirect (IDR) and direct (DR). The four groups used more indirect requests (NE: 69%, HL: 61%, LL: 53%, NC: 70%) than direct ones. On the other hand, as shown in Table 3, significant differences among the four groups' use of repertoire ($p < .05$), specifically between HL's use of downgraders and the other three groups'.

Table 2 *Chi-square Analyses of the Four Groups' Use of Each Complaint Strategy*

Strategy \ Group	NE x HL	NE x LL	NE x NC	HL x LL	HL x NC	LL x NC
Overall	$\chi^2 = 16.594$**	$\chi^2 = 2.377$	$\chi^2 = 26.308$***	$\chi^2 = 15.073$**	$\chi^2 = 35.975$***	$\chi^2 = 13.807$*
Hint	$\chi^2 = 7.515$**	$\chi^2 = .014$	$\chi^2 = .242$	$\chi^2 = 8.167$**	$\chi^2 = 1.333$**	$\chi^2 = .138$
Disapproval	$\chi^2 = 1.412$	$\chi^2 = 1.412$	$\chi^2 = 1.714$**	$\chi^2 = .011$	$\chi^2 = 4.500$*	$\chi^2 = 4.945$*
Request	$\chi^2 = .896$	$\chi^2 = 6.333$*	$\chi^2 = 34.409$***	$\chi^2 = 2.484$	$\chi^2 = 24.708$***	$\chi^2 = 11.919$**
Explicit complaint	$\chi^2 = 8.720$**	$\chi^2 = .543$	$\chi^2 = .438$	$\chi^2 = 4.959$*	$\chi^2 = 5.297$*	$\chi^2 = .006$
Accusation	$\chi^2 = .091$	$\chi^2 = .000$	$\chi^2 = 2.882$	$\chi^2 = .091$	$\chi^2 = 2.000$	$\chi^2 = 2.882$
Opting out	$\chi^2 = .053$	$\chi^2 = 1.000$	$\chi^2 = 3.769$	$\chi^2 = .600$	$\chi^2 = 3.000$	$\chi^2 = 1.000$

Note. Differences significant at the level of .05, .01 and .001 are indicated by *, **, and ***.

Table 3 *Lexical Repertoire Used by the Four Groups*

Lexical Repertoire \ Group	NE	HL	LL	NC
Upgrader				
Sum	155	123	89	148
Mean frequency	.87	.68	.47	.76
Downgrader				
Sum	157	196	95	161
Mean frequency	.88	1.08	.51	.83

On the other hand, the percentage analyses showed that the complaints of the learners of both proficiency groups were similar to those of the English speakers. However, the high achievers used hints with much higher percentage than native English speakers. As for low-proficiency learners, they employed explicit complaints with high frequency, and this was close to the Chinese speakers.

The low-proficiency learners' tendency to be severe was also reflected in their use of requests to complain. They produced indirect requests slightly more often than direct ones, but the frequencies of both types of requests being utilized were quite close while the other three groups employed indirect requests much more often. This seems natural because indirect requests are syntactically more complex than direct ones. The same explanation can be applied to their use of the other complaint strategies— direct, explicit strategies are easier for them to produce.

Furthermore, the learners' complaints can be analyzed in terms of the transfer effect. Although the native Chinese group seemed to be the second least severe among the four groups according to the statistical analyses, 41% of their complaints were explicit complaints. This implies that the Chinese speakers were rather straightforward in making complaints. Then, the low achievers appeared to exhibit some traits of negative transfer of severity. In contrast, the high-proficiency learners' complaints tended to be much less severe. This could be a reflection of their desire to be polite. The use of complaint strategies that were highly ranked on the severity scale may lead to tension in interpersonal relationships, and such an outcome would be opposite to these high achievers' intentions. In addition, the effects of negative transfer were not obvious in their complaints.

With regard to the effects of the variables on the complaints, Chi-square analyses revealed that the three variables seemed to play a role in the four groups' complaints. However, no generalizations can be made since significant differences were only found in some sparse cases.

IV. Conclusion

This study shows that English proficiency does play an important role in learners' complaints. While low-proficiency learners tended to be severe, the high achievers were likely to be indirect in complaints. The results implicitly indicate that as the learners' proficiency increases, they are able to conduct a face-threatening act more appropriately in L2.

There are two suggestions for future studies. Firstly, the influences of contextual variables on the subjects' complaint behaviors were not obvious in this study possibly because of the small number of participants. Thus, researchers can recruit more participants to see if the effects can be detected. Next, the Chinese subjects' complaints in this study appeared to contradict the general assumption that they tend to be polite and indirect. Therefore, more studies would be needed to investigate the severity of the Chinese subjects' complaints in modern Taiwanese society.

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Name: Chi-yin Hong
Department of Applied English, Diwan University, Taiwan
Phone: 886-6-5718888 ext 713
Email: cathyhong0419@hotmail.com

Biodata: Chi-yin Hong is an assistant professor of Department of English at Diwan University in Taiwan. Her research interests include interlanguage pragmatics, language and culture, and sociolinguistics. She has conducted a series of studies of English complaints made by Chinese learners, and some of them have been published.

European Language Education Models: Implications for Korea

Andrew Finch (Kyungpook National University)
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I. Introduction

This paper suggests how successful European models of language learning (particularly bilingual and multilingual approaches) might be beneficially adapted to the Korean situation, taking into account the specific characteristics of Korean society and its culture, and the need for multilingual global citizens. In contrast to the test-driven reality of many high school English classes, examination of the National Curriculum reveals that Korea has a humanistic, communicative language learning policy, promoting development of language performance skills, in order to produce citizens who can negotiate in the global marketplace, using English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Recent educational reforms in Korea are therefore examined in this light, and the feasibility and practicality of adapting further reforms from other societies are explored.

Based on a recent fact-finding research trip, the presenter examines successful language learning models in Europe and concludes that a bilingual (as in Finland), or a multilingual (as in Luxembourg) approach to language education is feasible in Korea, and could have tremendous impact in terms of achieving the sort of multilingualism that is already the norm in many developed countries. Such innovation, if implemented on a large scale, would require significant changes in the infrastructure of the Korean education system. However, this study suggests that a more gradual approach, along the lines of bilingualism in Canada, might be more successful, allowing time both for the development of effective curricula, and for the training of multilingual teachers. In view of the current atmosphere of reform in Korea, one that has been exacerbated by the recent global financial crisis, this paper finds that the goal of producing a multilingual workforce for the knowledge economy of the 21st century is both realistic and attainable.

II. Background

Education is considered extremely important in Asian societies (Leung, 2001, cited in Kennedy & Li, 2008, p. 16), especially at the level of the family, and Korea is no exception, with its students typically performing well in international assessments such as the OECD Programme for International Assessment (PISA). However, the world is experiencing rapid changes, and the 'knowledge economy' is producing new demands on education, calling for technically competent, multilingual global citizens, able to exercise higher-order thinking skills and to utilize intuitive, creative, right-brain functions (Pink, 2006), along with the memory-based left-brain approach which has been a feature of education up to this time. If we accept that schools have traditionally reflected the "social, economic and political needs of the societies that invest in them" (Kennedy & Li, 2008, cover page), then it follows that major conceptual changes in the economies and technologies of the world will require corresponding changes in educational policies and institutional environments (Programme on Educational Building, 1996), in order to provide a workforce that is radically different from that required by the Industrial Revolution – an event which initiated the factory model of education which still survives in many forms around the world. In view of technical and social changes which seem to be taking place almost daily, a number of commentators (e.g. Dryden & Voss, 2005; Graddol, 1997), have pointed to a new revolution that is facing global communities - a learning revolution, comprised of a number of mutually dependent and interactive factors:

1. The new world of instant information (combined knowledge of humankind at our fingertips);
2. The new world of interactive technology;
3. The explosion of "mass innovation" (people can create their own future);
4. The "computer in your pocket" revolution (personal interaction on blogs, social networking);
5. The community revolution (schools as lifelong community learning centers);
6. The sharing revolution (online access to teachers and information);

7. The upside-down revolution (individuals being responsible for their health and education);
8. The genetic, neuroscience revolution (questioning the basis of traditional ideas of 'education');
9. Above all, the new Open Revolution (The new open-source world of cooperative, collaborative, co-creativity). (Adapted from Dryden & Voss, 2005, pp. 20-21)

Such factors have inspired various statements about the contemporary situation, with authors such as Ridley (1999) talking about "The greatest intellectual moment in history" and and Tapscott (1996) pointing to "the dawn of an Age of Networked Intelligence – an age that is giving birth to a new economy, a new politics and a new society." In view of these trends, it is not unreasonable to suggest that the future of Asian societies depends on a transformation that requires a fundamental restructuring of schools as we know them, while maintaining their long-held cultural values.

In fact, policy on language teaching is changing rapidly in Korea. Bilingual teaching is being permitted in some state schools (with a resulting high level of competition to enter such schools), and the government is taking steps to make positive changes in English education in Korea (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2008; Oryang Kwon 2000). This paper aims to make further suggestions in the context of such reform plans.

III. A brief outline

In addition to accessing relevant research literature on language teaching models, this research investigated aspects of language teaching in five countries (The Netherlands, Finland, Germany, Luxembourg, and Belgium), covering a range of school types (state schools, private schools, European schools, International schools, Business Colleges), pedagogic approaches (Bilingual, Multilingual, Immersion, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)), and types of student (Kindergarten, primary, secondary, adult). A number of significant observations were made during this research – significant in terms of the potential they show for adaptation to the Korean educational system.

The results of semi-structured interviews with teachers, students, school principles, university professors and ministry officials, confirmed the findings of Pufahl *et al.* (2001) that "successful approaches in these countries consider students' first languages as a foundation upon which to build second language proficiency. In Luxembourg, several projects demonstrate that acknowledging the sociocultural context and the already developed competencies of children in their first language will boost learning of subsequent languages" (Pufahl *et al.,* 2001). Thus, in Luxembourg, both German and French are used as a medium of instruction throughout students' school careers to support simultaneous learning of both languages, whereas in immersion or bilingual programs in other countries, primary school children are taught subject matter almost exclusively in a second or foreign language.

It was also noticeable that the status of teachers in the countries visited, their role in the classroom, and their initial training, offer useful models which Korea might beneficially contemplate. To take an example, In Finland, potential teachers are recruited from among the best high school graduates. Teaching is a highly valued profession and admission to universities, where all teacher education takes place, is very competitive. Teacher-training typically lasts for five years, with two years of practical in-service training in schools. This situation creates a high degree of selectivity and increases the prestige of a teaching degree. Furthermore, "Pre-service training that integrates academic subject studies with pedagogical studies and teaching practice is considered one of the most successful aspects of foreign language education in several countries. In some countries, including the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, study and work abroad programs contribute to the high level of language proficiency among foreign language teachers" (Pufahl *et al.,* 2001).

IV. Conclusions

Examination of bilingual language teaching models in Europe shows a number of desirable results: i) student ability to communicate and work in more than one language; ii) high scores on the PISA; iii) appreciation of diversity; and iv) cultural awareness. In addition, this research found that there are

a number of features of European language education models that can be adapted to the Korean education system without fear of imperialism or of importing culturally inappropriate practices and assumptions. Some of these features are discussed below.

1. Teacher training is extremely important if bilingualism is adopted. There must be an infrastructure for teacher training and teacher support, and bilingual programs must be continuous and ongoing (e.g. 9 year programs).
2. Rather than imposing bilingualism (with obvious problems) parents should be given the choice to send their children to bilingual schools (or not). Teachers should be given the choice to work in bilingual schools (or not).
3. It might be better to start locally, rather than on a national scale. Local schools can get started with competent bilingual (Korean) professionals.
4. Local schools can gradually expand as more bilingual professionals appear, and as more parents demand bilingual education for their children.
5. Trust is extremely important. Teachers need to be highly trained, bilingual, and competent. They must then be allowed to get on with their profession.
6. Teacher-trainers need to be retrained. Rather than preparing students and teachers to teach only grammar-translation and reading skills (in preparation for multiple-choice tests), they also need to train them how to teach performance skills, conversation strategies, study skills (including self-teaching and emotional learning), pragmatics, and higher-order thinking.
7. Communication with parents is vital, at all stages.
8. Well-trained, multilingual, indigenous teachers are more valuable educational assets than untrained native speakers. In this context, Korea has a large bank of bilingual potential teachers – people who have studied abroad and can teach in the L1 (Korean) and the L2 (English). These teachers are the starting point for effective and successful bilingual education.

Finally, whatever the advantages of multilingual education, it is important to acknowledge the dangers of leaping into educational reform without due consideration, and without setting up the required infrastructure of teacher training and educational support (textbooks, teaching materials, etc.). This presentation therefore looks at the practicalities of adopting successful models from abroad and adapting them to the culture and circumstances of Korea.

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Name: Andrew Finch
Kyungpook National University
Teachers' College, Department of English Education
Phone (053) 950-5832
Email: aef@knu.ac.kr

Biodata

Dr. Andrew Finch is associate professor of English Education at Kyungpook National University, Korea, and was on sabbatical leave as Visiting Fellow at the Graduate School of Education, Bristol University, England, during 2008. While in Europe at that time, he researched contemporary European language learning models, as well as Korean Heritage Language Learning in the UK. Andrew has seen many changes in education in Korea since he first arrived in 1989 and sees important changes ahead. He also has a number of publications aimed at empowering teachers as materials designers, assessors and reflective researchers. These can be accessed from www.finchpark.com/courses, along with various teaching and learning resources.

The Policy of English Education and Its Effect in China
(China's Policy on English Education and Its Development)

Huang Zongzhi(Division of Ethnic Minority Education China)

I. Introduction

It was as recently as 30 years ago a general and large-scaled English education had its beginning in Chinese primary and secondary schools and universities. Foreign language courses, with English taking up the absolute predominance, occupy a very important position on all educational stages in China. Nowadays the overwhelming majority of Chinese students in schools and universities are studying English. Take Jilin Province as an example, there are more than 827 thousand primary students studying English, no one is studying other foreign language. In junior high schools 903 thousand students out of a total of more than 906 thousand study English. [4]

For the past 30 years, English teaching has gained a significant progress, its quality has been increased and quite an improvement of English popularization has been made among the common people. All this successes are due to a series of powerful English education policies adopted by Chinese government, which ensure the important place of English education. These policies are in conformity with Chinese conditions and efficient proved by practice. Certainly there are still many problems to solve in China's English education. Chinese government should go on to perfect the relevant policies to maintain the important place of English education, strengthen teacher training and promote the teaching reform to constantly improve English teaching quality.

I. The place of English education is ensured by the policies adopted by the Chinese government. (The position of English Education in China)

Chinese government pays a great attention to English education on all levels and ensures a central place in curriculum, class time, examinations, etc.

1. The place (position) in basic education

China started to set up English classes in primary schools in 1990s. According to the Curriculum Regulation for full-time primary school and junior high schools of Nine-year Compulsory Education issued by State Education Commission in 1992, qualified primary schools can have English courses as an additional course. In 2001 the Education Ministry issued the Experimental Plan on curriculum of compulsory education, [5] which formally add the English courses into the curriculum of primary schools and stipulated that the students should take English courses from the 3rd grade. Recently in some provinces or cities such as Guangdong, Beijing, Shanghai, from the very 1st grade in the primary schools the students begin to take English classes.

According to the curriculum plan issued by the State Education Committee, the English class hours from the in primary schools to the 3rd grade in junior high schools should take up 6-8% of all the class hours. This total English class time is only less than that of Science（including biology, physics and chemise for junior high level）, which starts from the 3rd grade as well and takes up the time proportion of 7-9%. English weighs heavily in the entrance examinations for senior high schools. Take Jilin Province as an example, the marks for Chinese, Mathematics and English were respectively 120, [6]with the total marks as 600. Recently in China, reforms have been made in subjects of college

[4] .吉林出版集团提供的外语教材征订数（The number of ordering the foreign language textbooks provided by Jilin Publishing Group ）

[5] 教育部关于印发《义务教育课程设置实验方案》（教基[2001]28 号）(Experimental Plan on curriculum of compulsory education, State Education Commission, No.28, 2001)

[6] 吉林省教育厅《关于 2009 年吉林省初中毕业生学业考试和高级中等学校招生工作的通知》(吉教基字[2009]5 号) (Notice on the)

entrance examination, different provinces adopt various subjects. Many provinces adopted the program of 3+x, 3 for Chinese, Mathematics and English (foreign language) and x for one subject, that is, General Science or General art or integrated sciences or arts in some provinces. However, no matter how the x changes, the core position of English remains unchangeable.

2. The place (position) in higher education

In order to test the college students' actual ability of using English objectively and accurately and serve the English teaching in universities, the National Education Committee established College English Test Band 4 and Band 6. Though Education Committee has never required to link the certificates of such exams to the academic degree, most of the universities in China do the opposite, demanding that their students' English level must reach Band 4 before they receive the Bachelor 's Degree and Band 6 before the Master 's Degree. If they failed, their degrees will be unavailable regardless of the excellent marks of other subjects. Since the English level is considered as the most important part in judging students' academic performance, the students spend half or more of their valuable time on learning English and ignore more or less the study of their professional courses and the improvement of their comprehensive quality. English level has also been regarded as one of the key indicators for the ranking of Chinese universities, which causes a blind competition among them.

3. The position in the society

The English level has a close connection to the employment of students. Many employers give first rank to English at the recruitment regardless of its actual use in the jobs. The employers always refuse to employ those who have excellent professional knowledge and working ability but a poor English level below Band 4 or Band 6. So the high English proficiency is really an open sesame in the job market. It also has become the precondition for professional title assessing, the teachers in universities and the researchers in scientific institutes must pass the English exams before they acquire another higher technical title. There are many regular qualification tests such as, for engineer, economists, accountants and architecture arranged by both Ministry of Labor and Ministry of Personnel and the local Labor and Personnel Departments (Bureau). Among those exams, English (foreign language) is an indispensable part.

For the past years, some experts and scholars have challenged the English education policies issued and implemented by the governments, defining its central role as hegemony. They even advocate reforming the involuntary English examination in various entrance examinations.

II.The English education policies by Chinese government are in conformity with the conditions of China (Pursuing the English Education Policies Consists with China's Actual Conditions)

The reason why Chinese government pays a great attention to English education and puts forward the relevant policies to establish its position has a close relation to mainly three factors, that is, the short English education history, the poor English level of common people and the shortcomings in English teaching in schools.

1. The short history of English education (Short English Education History)

For special historical reasons, from the very foundation of New China in 1949 to the early 1980s it is Russian that occupied the central position in the classes of foreign language in almost all schools and on all stages. Later the number of schools with English courses has (had) been increasing until English took the central position, so in China the large-scaled regular English education is no longer than 30 years. Because of the short history, the teacher's level is low, the teaching method is unsystematic. Furthermore, there are no effective English teaching policies suitable to the conditions of China

2. Long time's isolation and the low-level English proficiency of common Chinese people (Long-time Isolation and Low-level Proficiency)

China was isolated from the outside world from the foundation of new China in 1949 to 1978. During that period there was little communication between our nation and the western countries and few foreigners came to China. Common Chinese people had no chance to meet foreigners from other countries, let alone *went abroad* (going abroad) for study, business or sightseeing. So it was unnecessary to learn English, for there was no chance for us to use it.

In 1978, China implemented the reform and opening-up policy, her gate has been opened wider and wider. More and more foreigners came to China while more and more Chinese people going abroad. According to the statistics from China Education Commission, there were 1.3915 million people going abroad for study from 1978 to 2008 and 179.8 thousand in 2008. [7] According to the statistics from China Ministry of Public Security, the annual number of people exit and entry has increased from 5.66 million in 1978 to 318 million in 2006. [8] Objectively, with the increasing of dealings with other countries, the need for learning English is more and more, and the English using ability is improving as well. In spite of this, the number and scale of going abroad are still lower than that of the developed countries. Even those senior intellectuals have a low English proficiency, let alone those Chinese common people. Among all the Chinese Doctors and professors, few can have a smooth communication with foreigners in English.

3. The shortcomings in English teaching

There are quite a few shortcomings in English teaching in China. From the very beginning of learning English, students are required to learn the words by heart firstly, followed by grammar and reading, with an ignorance of speaking training. The college entrance examination exert quite a heavy pressure on the students, in order to pass the exams, many of them spend large amount of time and energy in listening to the teachers' explanation, memorizing and writing practice, but with little improvement in their actual English using ability. With a dozen of years' hard working, most of the students only learned mute English. Most of Chinese students can get high marks in TOEFL or GRE easily, but they found it hard for them to communicate in English after going abroad. Many students having passed Band 4 or Band 6 can not express themselves in simple English. The language environment of learning English for Chinese students is relatively poor. The media in English are very few in number and compared with those from developed countries, there are also few chances for Chinese students to go to the English-speaking countries for a short-time traveling or language training

III. The policies in future need to be improved and the English education level should be increased (Some Suggestions for Improving English Teaching)

1. Further Perfect Relevant Policies and Keep English Education's Central Position

Now the English education level in China is still low, which can't meet the requirement of Reform and opening-up. China's English education policies, though having some problems, are in conformity with the actual conditions. They are also workable through the test of practice. So Chinese government should stick to them, further improve the current English education policies and maintain the central position of English education. In the primary and secondary schools, the class time proportion of English should remain unchanged. For some qualified schools in some megalopolis, the English courses can begin from the first grade of primary school. The position and marks of English should be maintained in various entrance exams and qualification tests. We should make full use of examination as a policy orientation to draw people's attention to English education and English proficiency.

Nowadays, English hog too much limelight. That is, the proportions of schools with English courses and students who learn English are too high. Adjusting such a phenomenon also relies on

[7] http://www.moe.edu.cn

[8] http://www.china.com.cn

policies. We can adopt a lot of policies, such as, in entrance examinations for senior high school or universities, the candidates with a minority language (non-English) as their exam subject should be given bonus points, the minority language majors of universities should be given the right to act on their own to enroll students and the discrimination against the minority language candidates is not allowed. With these policies, the students can be encouraged to choose minority languages and the proportion of such students against those learning English can rise constantly. Finally we can see an appropriate position of minority languages in a more diversified foreign language education in primary and secondary schools.

2. Strengthen the training of teachers (Strengthen the Teachers' Training)

In order to raise the English proficiency of common people, the priority is to improve the English teaching in schools, which requires a lot of skilled teachers. The teaching quality in universities as well as in primary or secondary schools, especially in the rural areas, is not up to the requirement of teaching reform. So Chinese government must put in more energy and money to strengthen the teachers' training. The state, provinces, municipalities and countries should take on responsibilities for this work respectively. The key of training should goes to the establishment of a new English teaching idea, the familiarity with teaching method and the improvement of teacher's English proficiency. We should provide more chances for teachers to go to English-speaking countries or universities as well as primary and secondary schools in some developed areas for a long or short-term training

3. Push Forward the English Teaching Reform

The function of languages is to communicate and the aim of English teaching is to enable people to use rather than to pass much language knowledge on to others. English course is not one of explanation but training, which requires much hard practice, such as speaking and writing. Chinese English teaching should shake off the shackle of examination-oriented education and restore its priority to improving the actual ability of students. To do so, we need to put more attention on listening and speaking than on reading comprehension, in this way, we can improve the students' actual using ability. To improve students' specialized English ability, English Bilingual teaching should be encouraged in universities and if permitted, we can invite some foreign scholars or specialists as well as overseas returnees to give some specialized courses.

Different from other basic subjects, English is a practical course; language skills are developed and improved through personal practice. Chinese traditional English teaching has ignored students' interest of learning languages. Boring cramming method of teaching, thousands of words and complicated grammar discourage students instead of interesting them. Reforming English teaching to arouse students' learning interest can make English learning become an enjoyment. We should put the emphasis on students, stimulating their subjective initiative and enthusiasm to practice more, speak more and write more.

Note: Owing to that what the most of people in China learn and speak is English, somewhere in this paper we use English in place of foreign language.

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A Study on Middle School Students' Perception of English Punctuation

Jeong−Won Lee & Mi-Jin Kim (Chungnam National University)

I. Introduction

Written language plays as crucial role in communication as spoken language does. For smoother communication through written language, indispensable is the knowledge of how to use appropriate punctuation to convey the desired message. Compare the two letter messages below (Truss, 2003).

Dear Jack, I want a man who knows what love is. All about you are generous, kind, thoughtful people, who are not like you. Admit to being useless and inferior. You have ruined me. For other men I yearn! For you I have no feelings whatsoever. When we're apart I can be forever happy. Will you let me be? Yours, Jill

Dear Jack, I want a man who knows what love is all about. You are generous, kind, thoughtful. People who are not like you admit to being useless and inferior. You have ruined me for other men. I yearn for you. I have no feelings whatsoever when we're apart. I can be forever happy—will you let me be yours? Jill

Although the two messages engage the same vocabulary and grammatical structures, in the first one she bids farewell to her lover, while in the second she craves for her lover's love. These two messages reveal that punctuation can also change the meaning of the text (Quirk, et al., 1985).

The purpose of the present study is to investigate how much 2nd and 3rd year middle school students know about the 6 types of English punctuation: period, comma, question mark, colon, semi-colon, and dash that are used most frequently in English texts.

II. Methods

1. Subjects

The participants of the study were 214 middle school students: 117 (54.7%) of 2nd year and 97 (45.3%) of 3rd year students; and 100 (46.7%) of male and 114 (53.3%) of female students.

2. Research Tools

1) A survey questionnaire

Students were required to answer background information first, and then they were asked about whether they had had any experience of learning English punctuation, and where they had learned it, if any. Lastly, they were asked to define the 6 types of English punctuation in Korean in order to see how much they know about them (called the definition survey hereafter).

2) Punctuation tests

Two kinds of text were prepared with blanks to be filled with the punctuation marks based on the 2nd year middle school English textbooks: 29 periods, 26 commas, 4 question marks, 4 colons, 4 semi-colons, and 5 dashes. The students were asked to fill out the blanks with the most appropriate punctuation mark while reading the texts in order to examine their practical knowledge of using them in the appropriate positions correctly.

3. Data analysis

After descriptive statistics is administered for the survey questionnaire and the tests, analyses of frequency were performed to see the distribution of students' responses on the questionnaire and their score in the tests.

III. Results

1. Analysis of the questionnaire

1) Experience of learning English punctuation

Experience	Number of the Students (%)		
	2nd Year	3rd Year	Total
Yes	61(52)	51(53)	112(52.3)
No	39(33)	27(28)	66(30.8)
I don't know	17(15)	19(19)	36(16.8)
Total	117(100)	97(100)	214(100)

2) Places of learning English punctuation

Places	Number of the Students (%)		
	2nd Year	3rd Year	Total
School	32(52.3)	34(65.9)	66(73.9)
Private Institute	11(18.5)	11(20.7)	22(24.6)
Personal Tutor	9(15.4)	4(9.2)	13(14.5)
Supplementary Materials	1(1.5)	2(4.2)	3(3.3)
Others	8(12.3)	0(0.0)	8(8.9)

3) Degree of defining English punctuation

Punctuation	2nd Year (%)	3rd Year (%)	Total (%)
Period	96(82.1)	83(85.6)	179(83.8)
Comma	77(65.8)	70(72.2)	147(69.0)
Question Mark	89(76.1)	76(78.4)	165(77.2)
Colon	36(30.8)	42(43.3)	78(37.0)
Semi-colon	4(3.4)	8(8.2)	12(5.8)
Dash	12(10.3)	20(20.6)	32(15.4)

2. Analyses of the tests

1) The period

The period has 65.07 percent of the correct answers (18.29 of 29 items) in average. 66.4 percent of the students who inserted the period correctly in the definition survey could fill the correct answers in the blanks of the tests.

2) The Comma

The comma has 66.08 percent of the correct answers (17.18 of 26 items) in average, which is higher but about the same level as the result of the period. 68.8 percent of the students who inserted the period correctly in the definition survey could fill out the correct answers in the blanks of the tests.

3) The question mark

The question mark has 33.3 percent of the correct answers (1.33 of 4 items) in average and each item has 30 to 40 percentage of correct answers. It is noticeable for the question mark to rank second (more than 70% in average) following the period in the definition survey, but in the tests the record was poor (33.3% in average).

38.2 percent of the students who use the question mark correctly in the definition survey could fill out the correct answers in the blanks of the tests. This reveals that there is a remarkable difference between how much they know about the question mark and how well they can use of it. The question mark is more familiar one with students, like the period, than the any other types of punctuation.

4) The colon

The colon has 12 percent of the correct answers (0.48 of 4 items) in average. 21.6 percent of the students who inserted the colon correctly in the definition survey could fill out the correct answers in the blanks of the tests. This also shows that there is a remarkable difference between how much they know about the colon and how well they can use of it.

5) The semi-colon

The semicolon has 7.25 percent of the correct answers (0.29 of 4 items) in average. 25 percent of the students who used the semicolon correctly in the definition survey could fill out the correct answers in the blanks of the tests. However, the '25%' is meaningless because the percentage of correct answers of the number 4 item only reaches as much as 50 percent and the other 3 items, mere 16.7 percent. It reveals, therefore, that there is a remarkable difference between how much they know about the semi-colon and how well they can use of it except the number 4 item.

6) The dash

The dash has 7.8 percent of the correct answers (0.39 of 5 problems) in average. 20.7 percent of the students who insert the dash correctly in the definition survey could fill out the correct answers in the blanks of the tests. This shows that there is a remarkable difference between how much they know about the dash and how well they can use of it. Interestingly, the wrong answer tended to be the comma where the dash should have been used. The reason for this is probably because there are small letters before and after the position where the dash should be used, students might guess that those are for commas.

IV. Conclusion

In accordance with the results, 1) about a half of the middle school students had had experiences of learning English punctuation at school, 2) they had a certain amount of knowledge and ability to use the period, the comma, and the question marks since they are far more frequently used in texts, whereas they had difficulty using the colon, the semicolon, and the dash. This implies that although most students have a good deal of knowledge about English punctuation, they are still far behind in their using it properly in context. Future research is needed concerning how and with what we can help students gain practical usability as well as better understanding of English punctuation.

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Lee, Jeong-Won
Department of English Education
Chungnam National University
Phone: 042-821-5333
Email: jeongwon@cnu.ac.kr

Kim, Mi-Jin
Graduate School of Education
Chungnam National University
Phone: 010-2995-6904
Email: mijineeda@hanmail.net

A Study of Comparative Claims in U.S. Culture and Language Textbooks

Eugene Spindler (Hannam University)

I. Introduction

Culture textbooks in language teaching generally serve a dual purpose: while representing the culture, they also make language a cultural reality by filling a gap between understanding language as a code for the expression of universals and situating language in a particular time and place (Kramsch, 1998). In the process of representing and defining a culture, it may be necessary to allow the culture to define and interpret itself in its own terms (Geertz, 1973), p. 453), but if the freedom to self define occurs in isolation from significant contextualizing factors, then there is a danger that we have limited the "perception that ours is but one voice among many: through disproportionate focus on the only voice speaking (Geertz, 1983, p. 234). By presenting simplistic models, instructors may be tacitly perpetuating such views of culture, including the students' own, and discouraging critical reflection.

The following report surveys four textbooks used in the teaching of English language and United States' culture in South Korea for essentialized positions or positions (1) held static over time in the representation of U.S. national traits (such as religious freedom and ethnic diversity) and (2) isolated from variation within U.S. culture and from external points of reference in other cultures. Special attention was given to essentialized positions concerning diversity and rights (freedoms).

II. Method

The choice of search terms for examination of the textbooks was emergent. Occurrences of the terms *freedoms* (*rights*) and *diversity* in the textbooks were coded. Comparative assertions concerning rights and diversity, and essentialized assertions of rights and diversity were traced through all four texts.

The texts were selected after consultation with colleagues and a limited survey of professionals at other institutions in South Korea. The textbooks were the following *American Perspectives* (Earle-Carlin & Hildebrand, 2000), *American Ways* (Datesman, Crandall & Kearny, 2005), *Portrait of the U.S.A.* (U.S. State Department, Information Resource Center, 2006), and *The U.S.A.: Customs and Institutions* (Tierskey & Tiersky, 2001).

III. Results

The results indicate that some textbooks are more successful than others at avoiding essentialist positions. All of the texts surveyed refer to American diversity without defining diversity, and they refer to American freedoms without points of reference as to the definition of freedom in other, contemporary nations. There was a great amount of variability among the textbooks with the most comparative claims for diversity and rights being made in *American Ways* (Datesman, Crandall & Kearny, 2005) which had a total of 17. The fewest comparative claims for diversity and rights were made in *American Perspectives* (Earle-Carlin & Hildebrand, 2000) which had a total of one.

IV. Conclusion

This survey indicates that there is a need for the adoption of a scientific or demographic definition of diversity in U.S. culture textbooks, and more broadly, perhaps for the consistent application of a definition of diversity through the field of education as a whole. When comparative claims are made in U.S. culture textbooks about U.S. culture, then a definition of diversity that includes distinctions and population per distinction is applicable and should be applied as they have in other fields (see for example Blau, 2000).

Furthermore, discussions of freedom or rights in the United States may need to be contextualized for the students by instructors, themselves, as there was a lack of such contextualization in the texts.

Freedoms and rights can be quantified in context. Many non-governmental organizations are interested in measuring freedom. For example, Reporters Without Borders (n.d.) has attempted to rank worldwide press freedom by country.

This survey also indicates that the culture textbooks surveyed are not reliable sources for information that places the target culture in comparison to an other or others, and it is possible that culture textbooks, in general, may not be reliable sources for this information. The texts tended to view cultural or national traits as constant over time, regardless of historical change or development, and viewed national traits as points of promotion, heedless of data relevant to the international or cross-cultural comparisons being made.

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Biodata

Eugene Spindler has an M.A. in English Literature from Boston College and an M.S. in Literacy Education with a Concentration in Teaching English as a Second Language. He is a full-time foreign instructor in the English Education Department of Hannam University where he has taught a variety of courses who subjects include language teaching, reading methodology, and multimedia language teaching. His professional interests are language teaching research, culture studies, and literacy education. His e-mail address is espin@hnu.kr.

Teacher Learning within the Curricular Reform Context: A Case Study of an English Pre-service Teacher's Practicum Experience in South Korea

Kyungja Ahn (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

For the curricular reforms to be successfully implemented, the role of teachers as grass-roots implementers has been cited as most essential and consequently, appropriate teacher education programs to prepare teachers for the enactment of these policies have been called for by a number of researchers (Choi, 2000; Gorsuch, 2001; Hiramatsu, 2005; Li, 1998; Markee, 1993, 1997). However, despite increasing needs for effective professional development opportunities for teachers, little research has examined how such curricular innovations are actually instantiated in teacher education programs. Thus, research is needed into the extent to which teacher education programs help teachers understand the curricular reforms and implement them in their instructional practices.

In South Korea, pre-service teacher education has received less attention than in-service teacher education from educational reformers and the Ministry of Education. Nevertheless, the practicum represents a very important site for teacher learning because it is the first entrée into how to actually implement the mandated educational reforms. Thus, research focusing on the practicum experience in this context is essential because this activity has the potential to influence the EFL teacher educational system at the start of new teachers' careers. Therefore, this study examines how the concepts embedded in the curricular reforms are understood by a student teacher and the extent to which they become evident in her instructional practices throughout the practicum experience.

II. Theoretical Framework

As a theoretical and methodological framework through which teacher learning was examined, this study employed activity theory (Engeström, 1987, 1993, 1999; Leontiev, 1978, 1981), the fundamental principles of which were laid by Vygotsky (1978, 1986). Activity theory views all human actions as goal-oriented and artifact-mediated. As people attempt to reach their goals by using artifacts, their cognition and goal-oriented actions develop and transform. In addition, activity theory proposes that human cognition and behavior are interdependent in their development and should be considered in the contexts in which they are socially and historically constructed and reconstructed (Leontiev, 1978; Rohrer-Murphy, 1999). Thus, this theory enables us to consider the broader social, historical and cultural contexts of a student teacher's instruction within the activity system where she operates as the subject.

More specifically, the activity system model (Engeström, 1987, 1993, 1999) was applied to the data in order to identify the participants and process of an activity system as subject, artifacts (tools), object, outcome, community, rules, and division of labor. Also, this model was employed to examine if and where contradictions emerged that altered the nature of the activity system itself or maintained the status quo. Moreover, this model investigated several dimensions of the activity system that appeared to influence a student teacher's development, and finally where and what needs to be changed within this activity system if the outcome of her learning is to be the ability to teach in line with the mandated curricular reforms.

III. Methodology

In this study, one student teacher, Yuna, in a team of one mentor and three mentees, was shadowed during a four-week practicum at a Korean laboratory middle school. The data includes interviews, classroom observations, team conferences, student teacher journals, lesson plans, and curricular reform documents. The data were analyzed inductively through a grounded content analysis (Bogdan & Biklin, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The themes that emerged from the grounded analysis were analyzed within Engeström's activity system model (1987, 1993, 1999) in order to expose the activity

systems of student teachers' practicum experiences as being interwoven with individual, social, and other contextual factors.

IV. Findings

Yuna's English learning experience in the Korean Educational system was primarily based on traditional approaches to English language teaching. However, she also experienced and/or learned communicative approaches while studying abroad as well as at the university, and considered CLT as desirable and helpful. Thus, her instruction was in some ways consistent with the curricular reforms in that despite the contradictions with her pupils, she occasionally used several communicative activities in which she and her pupils had meaningful communication in English. In spite of this, Yuna frequently relied on teacher-fronted instruction and adopted non-communicative approaches, primarily focusing on developing pupils' grammatical competence.

The findings revealed that the student teacher's prior experiences and beliefs based on her earlier schooling had a powerful influence on how she perceived and enacted the curricular reform concepts during the practicum experience. In addition, the mentor teacher's (Mrs. Ma) beliefs and instructional practices were not so consistent with the reforms. Thus, the mediational means provided by the mentor teacher and instantiated in the practicum activities worked to socialize this student teacher into the normative ways of teaching English in this institutional context. Most of the time, Mrs. Ma's expertise trumped Yuna's own beliefs and education about ELT. Therefore, in order to meet her mentor's expectations, she focused on preparing for exams and completing the lessons rather than fully supporting her pupils' opportunities for L2 use. The contradictions leading to maintaining her control over pupils and accepting the grammar translation method against her own conception of teaching showed how she was socialized into the ELT norms advocated by her mentor teacher. Moreover, institutional constraints including pupils' lack of classroom participation and limited L2 abilities, the high-stakes nature of school-based exams, and pressure to complete the immediate practicum teaching requirements were found to constrain this student teacher's attempts to enact the CLT-oriented curriculum.

V. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of this study indicate that conceptual support, mentoring, and institutional support are critical for pre-service teacher concept development within the context of curricular reform efforts.

First of all, the practicum experience must create sufficient time, opportunity, and support as novice teachers try out the new concepts and ideas they learned from the coursework and do so in an environment which is conducive to the curricular reforms. More broadly, teacher education, from university coursework to the practicum experience to the initial years of teaching, must support teachers as they are resocialized into new ways of thinking about and enacting the curriculum.

In addition, since the findings revealed the influence that the mentor teacher's interpretations of the curricular reforms had on the student teacher's conceptual development and instructional activities, mentor teachers may need to have the sort of sustained professional development opportunities that will enable them to consistently and appropriately enact the curricular reform efforts and develop mentoring skills that help them not only demonstrate the curricular reforms in their teaching but talk about them in substantive ways with their student teachers.

Furthermore, the results indicate that broader macro-structures (e.g., institutional constraints) embedded within the activity system in which this pre-service teacher was learning to teach must change in order for a new teacher to fully overcome the contradictions she face in her initial classroom teaching experiences if language teacher education programs are to reorient her teaching conceptions and practices toward the CLT-based curricular reforms.

Moreover, this study indicates that educational reforms policies must grow out of the realities of schools and schooling, and address various issues that will impede and/or support any curricular innovation such as teachers' prior experiences and beliefs. Then, teacher education needs to create instructional contexts in which student teachers can have direct experiences with enacting the curricular reforms, while simultaneously reflecting on, thinking about, and critically analyzing their own teaching practices.

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Name: Kyungja Ahn
Seoul National University
E-mail: kjahn21@gmail.com

Bio data

Kyungja Ahn received her B.A. and M.A. in English Language Education at Seoul National University, and Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at Pennsylvania State University. She is currently teaching at Seoul National University. Her research interest includes L2 teacher education, L2 classroom discourse, language planning and policy, language socialization, sociocultural theoretical perspective on language learning and teaching, and L2 writing.

Applicability of language-enriched instruction to English-mediated content courses for postgraduate students in EFL contexts

Jaebum Kim (International Graduate School of English)

I. Introduction

As its title indicates, this study intends to determine if language-enriched instruction (LEI) proves necessary and effective to teach English as well as content in postgraduate courses mediated in English where mainstream students are usually in the situations of English as a foreign language (EFL). LEI as a silhouette or extension of content-based instruction (CBI) has not been publicly known to be adopted in postgraduate curricula to date no matter whether they have been run in the contexts of EFL, English as a second language (ESL) or English as a native language (ENL).

Donna M. Brinton first used the term "LEI" as a fourth prototype CBI model in her paper presented to a TESOL Symposium on Teaching English for Specific Purposes held in Buenos Aires on July 12, 2007. With the other existing models being theme-based instruction, sheltered instruction, and adjunct instruction, there are a number of variations or, in the words of Master (2000), "faces" of CBI such as immersion program and foreign language across the curriculum (FLAC). LEI is one of these prototype applications aligned with the principles of communicative language teaching (CLT) aiming at the development of use-oriented language skills in a content-driven curriculum. Brinton (2007) also called this "language-enhanced instruction," but similar models were practiced with other names such as "language based content instruction" as Straight (1997) used.

II. Content and language

The student who studies a subject is supposed to possess knowledge about philosophy, history and language of the specific subject. When the content of a subject comes down to terminology and clichés, language would constitute part of content. When each discipline has its own way of expression, that particular semiotic system is language. It may be beyond question that the English language occupies a fair share of content if the subject of study is English literature, teaching methodology or material development.

At kindergartens and elementary schools, teachers are considered omniscient and thus responsible for teaching everything to their students. From the secondary education above, however, language is specialized but reneged to one of many subjects. Nonetheless, the success or failure of other subjects still depends on language teaching ability of teachers and language learning ability of students. This phenomenon is not dissimilar to the linguistic relativity hypothesis that language determines one's weltanschauung and Chomsky's focus on biological aspects of language.

As content becomes more sophisticated and advanced to teach and learn, so does language. There arises imbalance between language and content in EFL contexts, and such an imbalance causes frictions and tensions between the two. The origin of these phenomena could be traced to the discrepancy in the perceptions of meaning of content and key functions of language, especially between language instructors and content instructors.

For language teachers, content usually means just any stuff or subject matter, not necessarily some substance or significance, whereas the functions of language are too manifold to enumerate. Language not only constitutes considerable parts of content but actually governs content because it concerns with all the cognitive operational processes from logic to rhetoric.

Most of the times in producing and using weapons systems, the delivery system is more important and costs more to produce than the weapons proper. In CBI, content is a vehicle of language and vice versa because, while content is taught and learnt through language, so is language through content. When discussing methodologies and curricula of language teaching, researchers are interested in the basis and focus. CBI is a CLT method based on content and with the focus on meaning, and so is LEI. While meaning-focused language teaching tends to shun accuracy, LEI should be based on the principle that accurate language explains and conveys content accurately.

III. Accumulated exposure to English

Despite all the flaws revealed from the critical period hypothesis, English for young learners (EYL) gains popularity around the globe as Graddol (2006) pointed out. No one would deny that the learner's accumulated exposure to English determines the degree of proficiency until overtaken by a late starter's. The logic here is that marathoners' performance depends on their mileage accumulated by training. By the same token, many studies have corroborated the efficacy of CLT, especially teaching English through English (TETE) and teaching English in English (TEE). Content-language integrated learning (CLIL) is widely spread across Europe from youth to advanced learners. For advanced and adult learners, teaching English for general purposes (EGP), teaching English for specific purposes (ESP), and English for academic purposes (EAP) in English in content courses can constitute LEI.

A recent study revealed that each year over 44 percent of Korean students who undergo postgraduate work at the Ivy League universities drop out mainly because of their inability to overcome language barriers. Most universities in the English speaking countries require high scores of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or International English Testing System (IELTS) and Graduate Record Examination (GRE) with verbal section included for international students applying for admission. Most students to whom the admission is granted would first be enrolled in a summer English course prior to the fall semester. These select and trained students who had already studied English at least ten years in EFL situations still suffer difficulties to follow content courses in their subsequent semesters because of their insufficient English proficiency. After all, their academic performance depends largely on their language ability. While ENL students are language users, ESL students are half language users and half learners, and EFL students even at postgraduate levels of content study are still more language learners than users owing to their limited amount of accumulated exposure to the English language.

IV. Applicability of language-enriched instruction

The result of a recent survey revealed that the students and graduates who felt more need for English in their studies and work had more positive perceptions of and stronger preferences for English-mediated content courses, and expected and suggested more that content and English communication skills courses be combined to produce synergy effects. As language instruction occupies priorities over content instruction, it is evident that written and spoken language proficiency takes precedence to content knowledge even in postgraduate courses. If language courses are incorporated into content courses, LEI can be adopted in the classroom. For postgraduate students in EFL contexts, LEI is recommended to be placed at the end of a lifelong continuum from EYL to CBI and CLIL as well as EGP, ESP and EAP, all conducted in English. Starting to implement such a curriculum now, it will take a generation for students to accumulate sufficient exposure to English and get used to it as a medium of teaching and learning content.

Among so many functions of language as, expressive ones are creative processes. This means that language is not only science but art. Perhaps the most decisive fallacy in teaching and learning language is that the researchers and practitioners have given too short shrift to artistic aspects of language. Teaching and learning English must be disparate to teaching and learning natural sciences, social sciences, or humanities, but not dissimilar to teaching and learning fine arts, performing arts, and martial arts, e.g. painting, piano, and Taekwondo. English as a subject at K-12 schools in ENL situations is called "language arts." When applying LEI to content courses, therefore, the instructors are advised to make full use of creative and artistic subtleties and niceties of language.

V. Conclusion

The implications of all these phenomena could mean several paradoxes in EFL contexts: (1) Content is the objective and language is means of learning, but the crania-rectal reversion is inevitable for outstanding academic performance. (2) Language is generally considered subservient to content, but success in content courses depends largely on spoken and written language proficiency. (3)

Language is usually a vehicle to convey content, but content is a vehicle to enhance language skills in CBI and LEI. (4) CBI is theoretically a language teaching method and LEI is a content teaching method, but in practice vice versa. (5) Despite content envy or *flight attendant syndrome*, language takes more time and trouble to teach, learn, and study.

In order to reduce tension between language and content in LEI, both language and content instructors need to share a consensus that language and content are both a means and end, and both are equally important. If language courses are incorporated into content courses for adult and advanced learners, LEI can be practiced in the classroom. A carefully coordinated curriculum design is called for in order to have success in practice. But hands-on syllabus designs, materials development and lesson plans as well as actual management of courses and classes are more important because it is up to the grass-root teachers to decide how much time should be spent on language in each content class in consideration of students' needs and wants. Almost all the researchers of CBI agree that rigorous teacher education is vital to success.

Compromise is essential to reduce ambition for content coverage during a semester in an effort to fortify language base for the subject. Briton and Holten (2003) argued about teaching grammar in EAP, "The Emperor does have clothes but needs fashion consultation." LEI is useful to the extent that the ultimate goal is still content mastery and thus LEI is complementary to this goal.

While an arbitrary border between language and content is blurred or even removed in LEI, an optimum balance between them must be defined. Analogy can be drawn that, if LEI is conducted by a language teacher or a content teacher, a combination of a dictionary and encyclopedia should be a foundation for content. As students recognize which teacher knows more and which teacher teaches better, it seems better off to have content teachers who speak and write articulately assume charge of LEI. Chronic controversies over language imperialism, ownership, nativespeakerism, authenticity have to be attended to the effect that intelligibility of content is met. The students are recommended to succumb to the views of mainstream NS instructors of LEI in this respect.

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Jaebum Kim
English Language Teaching Department
International Graduate School of English
Phone: 010-4511-3270
Email: jaebum50@hanmail.net

Biodata
Ambassador **Jaebum Kim** is a fulltime student at International Graduate School of English in Seoul and professor emeritus at the Institute of Foreign Affairs and National Security. He was a Distinguished Professor in Diplomacy at Graduate School of International Studies of Yonsei University, visiting professor at the National Tax Officials Training Institute, and Korean Ambassador to Uruguay. He studied at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies in Seoul, University of Oxford, Korea National Defense University, Central Officials Training Institute in Gwacheon, Asia-Pacific Center for Security Studies in Honolulu, and Hallym Institute of Advanced International Studies in Seoul.

Teachers' attitudes toward the English Language: A Case of Korean Public Elementary School Teachers

Jeong-Ah Lee (Sungkyunkwan University)

I. Introduction

Along with a widely spread recognition of the globalized use of English, the TESOL field has observed increasing discussions on the notion of the native speaker and ownership of English. This line of inquiry has questionned the native speaker (NS) model in English langauge teaching (Canagarajah, 1999; Cook, 1999) and the assumed ownership of the "Inner Circle" (Kachru, 1996) over the English language. In this conception of the English language, English is owned not by the Inner-Circle countries but by its (international) users (Matsuda, 2003b; Widdowson, 1994). From this view, researchers have suggested that English language teaching should be implemented for assisting the learners to perceive themselves as legitimate international English users, not deficient English spekers in relation to NESs (Matsuda, 2003a; Mckay, 2003a, 2003b; Park, 2004; Timmis, 2002).

Studies on the attitudes of English learners toward English in the EFL context, however, have indicated that the de-emphais of NS norms promoted by the EIL perspective had little influence on the EFL learners. (e.g., Choi, 2007; Matsuda, 2000, 2003b; Jung, 2005).They have shown that EFL learners' attitudes are Inner-Circle NS norm-bound. For instance, on the Japanese secondary students' Inner Circle-centric views about the English language, Matsuda(2003b) has commented that such attitudes are "problematic especially in contexts where students learn English for international communication" (p. 493). Thus, she argues English teaching and learning practices should help students develop awareness and familiarity with different varieties of English.

If there is a need for students to be exposed to the EIL or World Englishes perspective to become an effective English user in international communication, it would be critical that these alternative views are shared among teachers first because their views on the English language are likely to influence the students' views. However, studies on teachers' attitudes toward the English language are rather scarce (e.g. No, 2006; Sifakis & Sougari 2005), compared to those on learners' views.

Given this context, the present paper, part of a larger study[9], examines elementary school teachers' attitudes toward the English language.

II. Methodology

The present study employed a mixed methods design, more specifically an explanatory mixed methods design (Creswell, 2005). The study consisted of two phases: the quantitative and qualitative phases. In the first phase, a questionnaire was distributed to public elementary school teachers, and the second phase consisted of interviews and classroom observations[10].

Instrumentation

For the quantitative data, part of the questionnaire was designed to seek information about the teachers' attitudes toward the English language. It consisted of nine six-point Likert-type items (from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*) and four non-Likert-type ones. I adapted the items from earlier studies (e.g., Matsuda, 2000, 2003b; No, 2006; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005) on English learners' and teachers' attitudes in the "Expanding Circle" (Kachru, 1992) toward the English language.

The interview was a semi-structured, open-ended type. Therefore, I did not have fixed questions beforehand but had general guiding questions in my mind. Since the purpose of the interview was to obtain additional data to compare with, refine, and/or contextualize the

[9] The larger study examined teachers' sense of efficacy in teaching English and factors related to it. Teachers' attitude toward the English language was one of the factors. In the larger study, three more factors including teachers' perceived English language proficiency, their attitudes toward the current elementary English education policy and practices, and their characteristics were examined.

[10] Please note that the classroom observation data are not discussed in this paper.

results from the survey data, the guiding questions were in accordance with the themes in the questionnaire.

Data Collection

The participants of both the quantitative and qualitative data collection phases were selected using the convenience sampling method. The data collection period was late July through November, 2007. The survey was conducted of the teachers in three in-service teacher training institutes and 30 elementary schools located in two metropolitan cities and three provinces. A total of 1,327 responses were gathered, with a response rate of 74%. I interviewed 23 out of the 97 teachers who volunteered to be interviewed. A total of 19 semi-structured, open-ended interviews were conducted: 16 individual interviews and three group interviews. Every session, lasting 50 to 60 minutes, was conducted in Korean and audio-recorded.

Data Analysis

Survey and Interview data were analyzed separately from each other, and the interview data were used to triangulate and contextualize the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, central tendency measures, and variability measures, were used to analyze the survey data. The recordings of the open-ended, semi-structured interviews were transcribed and analyzed according to the recurring patterns (or themes).

III. Results

Survey Results

Due to page limit, the responses on the Likert-scale items are shown here in the table format only. Table 1 shows mean scores and standard deviations, and Table 2 shows frequencies on each item.

Items	Mean	*SD*
In Korea, knowing English is more useful than knowing any other foreign language.	4.97	1.00
English is an international lingua franca.	5.08	0.86
I want to pronounce English like an American.	4.61	1.16
The English spoken by Indian or Philippine people is not an authentic English.	3.73	1.17
It's okay not to speak like an American because English is an international language.	4.46	1.06
American English is the best model for Korean learners of English.	3.56	1.17
A command of English is important in understanding people from other countries and their cultures.	4.53	1.02
I don't feel embarrassed with my Korean accent when I speak English.	3.93	1.18
It seems that English spoken by South East Asians is different from that spoken by Americans.	4.11	1.01

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of the Items of the Attitudes Toward English Scale

Items	*n*	Negative			Affirmative		
		SD	D	SLD	SLA	A	SA
		f (%)	*f* (%)	*f* (%)	*f* (%)	*f* (%)	*f* (%)
1	1,325	7 (0.5)	33 (2.5)	49 (3.7)	263 (19.8)	527 (39.8)	446 (33.7)
2	1,325	3 (0.2)	11 (0.8)	39 (2.9)	223 (16.8)	598 (45.1)	451 (34.0)
3	1,323	18 (1.4)	64 (4.8)	106 (8.0)	359 (27.1)	453 (34.2)	323 (24.4)
4	1,323	41 (3.1)	199 (15.0)	233 (17.6)	499 (37.7)	303 (22.9)	48 (3.6)
5	1,317	10 (0.8)	55 (4.2)	148 (11.2)	415 (31.5)	488 (37.1)	201 (15.3)
6	1,320	64 (4.8)	176 (13.3)	357 (27.0)	452 (34.2)	224 (17.0)	47 (3.6)
7	1,320	7 (0.5)	48 (3.6)	131 (9.9)	398 (30.2)	525 (39.8)	211 (16.0)
8	1,319	28 (2.1)	137 (10.4)	279 (21.2)	439 (33.3)	332 (25.2)	104 (7.9)
9	1,318	19 (1.4)	64 (4.9)	206 (15.6)	580 (44.0)	360 (27.3)	89 (6.8)

Table 2: Frequencies of Each Item. (N = 1,327) *The table presents the number and the percentage of*

the respondents by their choice on each item.

Note: SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, SLD = Slightly Disagree, SLA = Slightly Agree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree, and *f* = Frequency

While analyses of Likert-scale items indicated the teachers' mixed attitudes concerning the NS and EIL views (see Tables 1 and 2 above), those of non-Likert type items suggested that the teachers' attitudes were closer to the (Inner Circle) NS view. The majority of participants regarded particular Inner Circle nationalities (e.g., American, Canadian, British, and Australian) as native English speakers more strongly than others. The teachers also showed clear preferences for NESTs from Inner Circle countries such as the U.S., Canada, the U.K, and Australia over those from Outer or Expanding Circles, although the degree of their preferences differed over the Inner Circle nationalities. Also, it would found that negative perception about non-Inner Circle English varieties dominated positive perception by 22%, indicating that they had more negative attitudes towards the varieties.

Interview Results

Interview data generated four recurring themes that could be categorized into the participants' attitudes towards the English language. The themes were 1) English as a default language to learn, 2) Inner-Circle, American English norm-bound, 3) Using English as an international language, and 4) Discrepancy between being an English speaker and being an English teacher.

III. Conclusion

The survey and interview data showed that the NS view concerning the English language was dominant among the teachers. This was in accordance with previous studies on attitudes toward English language in Expanding Circle countries (e.g., Matsuda, 2003b; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005). One valuable insight from the interview results was that there was a discrepancy between the attitudes toward English language as an English user and as an English teacher. This discrepancy is suggested as the possible reason for the seemingly conflicting responses to some of the Likert-scale items, indicating the teachers' attitudes toward English being complex, not monolithic.

It seems that the active discussions in the TESOL and applied linguistics fields about EIL and its implications for nonnative English teachers and students have not yet reached the practitioners and their classrooms in Korea, as in Greek EFL classrooms (Sifakis and Sougari, 2005).

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Jeong-Ah Lee
Sungkyun Language Institute
Sungkyunkwan University
Phone: 070-7631-0364
Email: sjkstar@gmail.com

Biodata
Jeong-Ah Lee completed her Ph.D. in Foreign and Second Language Education at The Ohio State University (OSU), Columbus, Ohio in 2009. Her research interests include non-native English speaking teacher development, use of drama in language teaching and learning, and teaching English as an international language in the EFL context. She can be contacted at sjkstar@gmail.com

A Study on the Effectiveness of English as the Medium of Instruction in the Korean Context

Mi Sun Kim (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

I. Introduction

With integration of subject matter and language learning being a phenomenon around the world, a growing number of top universities in Korea are adopting and expanding the use of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) to raise their international competitiveness. The theoretical foundations of EMI draw upon content-based instruction (CBI), in which a second language is used as the vehicle to deliver content instruction. Brinton, Snow and Wesche defines content-based instruction as the concurrent teaching of content with language-teaching aims and propose that "…content-based instruction aims at eliminating the artificial separation between language instruction and subject classes which exists in most education settings" (2003, p.2). This holistic approach to foreign language education encourage students to learn a new language by actually using the language as a real means of communication, aiming to empower students to become autonomous, not only in the classroom, but beyond(Stryker and Leaver, 1997).

The EMI classroom creates a real communication situation within formal education which calls the need for genuine language use. And although there is a general acceptance regarding the benefits of integrating language and content teaching, there exits the challenge as to how such integration can be accomplished within the classroom, especially when this approach is being abruptly adopted and students are sometimes faced with a cold-start intensive exposure of the target language, sometimes regardless of their major and background.

II. The Study

This paper focuses on the performance of the 2005 cohort of students entering a prominent institution in the field of information technology, where the major courses are taught in English, and tracks their improvement in English proficiency during their university life and collects qualitative data through interviews of a small representative sample of students from the longitudinal study to get a better understanding about students' beliefs and attitudes as they learned subject content with English as the medium of instruction. The TOEFL ITP, which tests listening, grammar and structure, and consists of the previously administered TOEFL paper-based tests, is the assessment used in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program for the purpose of identifying English proficiency during the pre-matriculation program called Academic English Camp, and measuring growth as the students exit the program in the second year. Near graduation, students are also required to obtain a minimum of 840 on TOEIC. The English language is given high emphasis in the first two years with the main objective of the EAP program to help students to function well in the classroom conducted in English; each course consists of 45 hours of instruction per term and undergraduate students are required to complete 8 EAP courses before graduation.

III. Results and Conclusion

A total of 76 students enrolled in the EAP program took the ITP TOEFL test at the beginning(camp in 2005) and exiting(2^{nd} term of 2^{nd} year) of the EAP program and 24 of those students took the TOEIC test at various times during 2008~2009 with the average scores of 473.36(ITP TOEFL)/660(TOEIC), 513.59(ITP TOEFL)/725(TOEIC), and 878.54(TOEIC)/588(ITP TOEFL), respectively. The scores indicate there was improvement during the first two years when the students were taking the EAP courses but greater improvement when they were not taking any EAP courses but focusing more on their major courses taught in English. From the scores, it is not certain whether the English proficiency did indeed improve or if the students were merely more motivated to meet the graduation requirement. Those with a score between 213 and 230 on TOEFL or a score between 800

and 840 on TOEIC are considered meeting the graduation requirements if they attain an average GPA of 3.0 in the English courses.

In contrast to the test scores, the interviews conducted to get a better understanding about students' belief about EMI in their content learning revealed that the students felt that in general, there was a lack of growth in English proficiency while learning their content through this EMI approach, but claimed that English did not really pose a language barrier to the students to understand the lecture. Furthermore, from the students' perspective, it appears that high proficiency of all the four skills in English is not necessary essential in the classroom, even though it is the vehicle for acquiring the content knowledge. One reason for this may be that the professors seem to be taking the students' limited proficiency into consideration in their lecture delivery, explanation and evaluation procedures. The formats are lecture-style and not much oral production is required of the students. Therefore, the students expressed that though they made some progress in their English receptive skills and expressed greater confidence in their ability to use the target language, but Korean students' reticence to participate in spoken discourse in the classroom maybe one of the major reasons for lack of improvement in speaking and the professors tend to only focus on the content, not their English writing skills, in the major courses.

The students generally held a positive attitude toward the EAP program to become more familiar with English but inadequate to effectively prepare them with the main skills needed to meet their academic requirements in the content courses. However, it was clear through the interviews that students clearly needed advice and assistance to infuse the English language skills acquired in the EAP program into learning their subject matter. Otherwise, the English proficiency the acquired during the first term in particular, is not maintained nor does significant improvement occur.

Though the advantages of the integration of content learning and language learning cannot be denied, this study finds that EMI expands the students' content knowledge basically to the degree of knowing the terminology and the subject matter superficially and there is not a continuous increase of English language skills through years of EMI. Thus, the results of this study do not provide a persuasive argument for the benefits of EMI. Whether EMI is an effective approach in the Korean context of improving English proficiency is not evident.

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Mi Sun Kim
Center for International Affairs
KAIST ICC
Phone: 042-866-6895
Email: sunna25@yahoo.com

Biodata

MiSun Kim has taught university level students for more than 10 years in Korea and is a doctoral candidate in TESOL at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies. She can be contacted at sunna25@yahoo.com.

Collaborative Dialogues during Korean-English Language Exchange: How Language-Exchange Create a Context for Language Learning

Tae youn Ahn (University of Washington)

I. Introduction

Language-exchange partnerships, according to Pemberton & Kasten (1996), are defined as "the process whereby native speakers of different languages meet or communicate in order to learn each other's language(s)" (p.218). They differ from other formal second language (L2) learning settings such as classroom learning or tutoring situations, in that they are not characterized by one-way language learning because the partners serve as experts in his or her first language for each other, each assuming expert and novice roles in turn (Kőtter, 2003). While language-exchange interaction has a social rather than a pedagogical nature (Thorne, 2003), the focus on language use and earning differentiates language-exchange interaction from ordinary informal conversation, providing an authentic forum for mutual learning through cross-linguistic interaction.

Language-exchange, more commonly termed as *tandem learning* (Appel, 1999) in previous SLA studies, is usually perceived as useful in improving one's language proficiency and thus are encouraged in many language institutions (Stoller, et al., 1995). In a study that analyzes tandem language learning by email, Little, et al. (1999) identifies the hypothetical benefits of language-exchange learning as follows: (1) tandem learning facilitates target language use, (2) in tandem learning, interaction with a native-speaking language partner is sharply focused on the learner's needs and interests, and (3) language learning can take place through frequent opportunities to receive corrective feedback from a native speaker. Apart from the gains in language learning, the participants of language-exchange program considered the personal encounter and opportunities for friendship with a native speaker as important benefits of the partnerships (Gieve & Clark, 2005).

Despite its generally acknowledged value, however, we know surprisingly little about how language-exchange contributes to students' second language learning and whether the collaborative interaction generated by tandem exchanges lead to language learning opportunities. Compared to research based on computer-based tandem learning (Appel, 1999; Belz, 2002; Chung & Graves, 2005 , Jauregi & Banados, 2008; Kitade, 2000; Kőtter, 2003; Little & Brammerts, 1996; Thorne, 2003), face-to-face language-exchange, in particular, has remained a minority interest in the field of SLA (Little, et al., 1999). The purpose of the present paper, therefore, is to deal directly with the question of the quality and the kind of learning that takes place in a language-exchange environment by qualitatively analyzing the tandem interactions between six language-exchange pairs of U.S. learners of Korean and Korean learners of English. Learner talk, according to Wigglesworth (2006), "provides a source of data for researchers to explore the ways in which language learning processes are realized" (p.104), especially when the talk attends to different aspects of the target language (i.e., metalanguage). By examining the content of the language-exchange dialogues, this study focuses on finding out whether and how face-to-face tandem exchange can create a context for learning language for Korean learners of English by identifying and analyzing moments of interaction when attention is given primarily to the form, meaning, and use of the English language. Language-exchange interaction will thus be analyzed into episodes of language-related dialogues, following Swain & Lapkin (1998).

Language Related Episodes

Language-related episodes (LREs) are defined as "instances of collaborative dialogue in which students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or other- or self-correct their language production" (Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002, p. 173). In collaborative dialogue, learners work together to solve linguistic problems and/or co-construct language or knowledge about language. Within the context of this study, collaborative dialogues consisting of LREs will serve as a useful concept for understanding L2 learning in language-exchange settings since tandem learning generates collaborative interaction between language learners to give and receive linguistic support. Based on analysis of the LREs, we can find out whether language learning

opportunities emerge in tandem exchanges, and gain insight into how learners create a context for language learning in language-exchange interactions. The present study, therefore, addresses the following research questions:
1. Do learners engage in LREs in language-exchange interaction? If so, in what ways does the Korean native-speaking participant negotiate LREs to enhance opportunities for English language learning?
2. What aspect of language is the focus of attention in the LREs found in language-exchange interaction?

II. Method

Participants

A total of six pairs of Korean-English language exchange students participated in the study. The Korean ESL students were all enrolled in the English Language Program at the University of Washington. They were all college students in Korea who came to the U.S. to study English abroad. The U.S. students were undergraduate students taking Korean language courses at the university. Both groups of students were matched one-to-one by the Language Exchange Program coordinator at the English Language Program. Once matched, it was the students' responsibility to contact their language partners and schedule a regular meeting; the meetings were not monitored by the Language Exchange Program.

Procedures

Each participant was separately interviewed before and after the collection of interactional data. During initial interviews, students were asked about their language learning experiences, motivation for applying for a language-exchange program, and their expectations for their language partners in the exchange. Since most student pairs met on a weekly basis, I arranged a schedule with each pair to video- and audio-record their conversations once a week for eight weeks. Each meeting lasted approximately for an hour. After the eight-week data collection period, each participant was asked to reflect on their language-exchange experience and talk about how language learners can benefit from language-exchange partnerships.

III. Analysis of the Data

In general, an LRE starts with the identification of a language problem and ends with a resolution. Drawing from previous studies that investigated LREs as operationalizations of learning opportunities that arise during learner interaction (Shekary & Tahririan, 2006; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Gutierrez, 2006), each LRE found in the data was coded based on the type of the core language item it focused on (e.g. grammar, lexicon, etc.). The present study, however, does not discuss analysis based on LRE counts since, as Fortune & Thorp (2001) argue, quantification of LREs, although valuable, "fails to capture completely the complexity of the interaction" (p.143). As Fortune & Thorp (2001), I encountered a number of problems isolating, classifying, and quantifying LREs in language-exchange interactions. Considering the complex nature of language-exchange talk, qualitative analysis seems to better capture the diversity and complexity of the data. Therefore, the analysis focuses on qualitatively examining SLA opportunities and the processes of language learning in the data.

IV. Results

Research Question 1. *Do learners engage in LREs in language-exchange interaction? If so, in what ways does the Korean native-speaking participant negotiate LREs to enhance opportunities for English language learning?*

The results indicate that language-exchange interaction provided many opportunities for its participants to produce LREs. With no established guidelines for language use or topic of conversation, both Korean and U.S. students created a context for language learning by mutually assisting and collaborating for language learning to take place. The LREs, however, did not naturally

emerge from an on-going conversation. Most LREs, at least those that were related to Korean students' English language learning, were prompted by the Korean student's explicit questioning of a linguistic item that emerged in the development of talk or their execution of questions prepared prior to the language-exchange meeting.

In Episode 1, the LRE was instigated by Bohee's initial question about the meaning of the phrase 'come off' and the following questions asking whether the expression can be used with other nouns (i.e., clothes) and how it is different from the verb 'erase'. By identifying a moment in talk to deliver a language-related question relevant to the on-going development of talk and actively seeking clarification on the target language item, Bohee was able to create her own learning opportunity which helped her expand lexical knowledge.

Episode 2, on the other hand, shows an example where an LRE is triggered by a question prepared by the Korean student for her language-partner in advance to the language-exchange meeting. In this episode, Arra initiates the negotiation of an LRE by overtly drawing Jessica's attention to the difference between the phrases 'heard of' and 'heard about' through questioning. This episode serves as another example of Korean students taking the initiative to use questioning techniques in the language-exchange context for building knowledge about their target language.

Research Question 2. *What aspect of language is the focus of attention in the LREs found in language-exchange interaction?*

The LREs found in the present data were classified into grammatical, lexical, sociolinguistic, and cross-linguistic based on its linguistic focus. While form-based (i.e., grammatical) and meaning-based (i.e., lexical) LREs are frequently discussed in other studies that use LREs as analytical framework, LREs related to sociolinguistic issues and cross-linguistic comparison are rarely found in existing literature (Martin-Beltran, 2006), and thus will be the focus of discussion in this section.

Sociopragmatic LREs

Sociopragmatic LREs refer to collaborative dialogues that deal with the appropriate use of language in given contexts and the understanding of various social discourses that language learners may encounter in the target culture. In the present data, sociopragmatic LREs were often triggered by lexical issues, but went beyond the understanding of the lexical meaning as the students discussed the sociocultural and sociolinguistic constraints of its use. Episode 3 illustrates such an example, in which Bohee asks Tiffany for the appropriateness of the word 'messy' when she uses it for describing her teacher. Another common type of sociopragmatic LRE is prompted by Korean students' inquiry on context-specific expressions relating to interactional norms. In Episode 4, Jihyun asks Chris how she can offer to buy a meal for her friends in English without saying 'My treat'. Chris teaches Jihyun a more commonly used expression 'I'll buy you lunch', which to him sounds most natural in a situation where he treats his friends to a meal.

The sociopragmatic LREs found in the data suggests that language learners can develop a better understanding of the sociopragmatic meaning of a lexical item and become more pragmatically competent in various social contexts through a collaborative dialogue of inquiry in language-exchange settings.

Cross-linguistic LREs

Cross-linguistic comparisons of linguistic items were another type of LREs that were found in the present data. As language-exchange allowed bringing two languages to the table, students could engage in cross-linguistic analysis of specific language structures or lexical items, which would not have been possible in one language alone. In cross-linguistic LREs, the students collaborated to solve linguistic problems caused by the effect of so-called 'translation equivalency' and together they searched for a better expression in one language that more suitably conveys the meaning of the other.

Episode 5, for example, begins with Jihyun's inquiry on the proper English translation of the Korean phrase '*budami dweida'* (부담이 되다) as she finds out that the translation given in the Korean textbook 'to be mentally burdensome' is not commonly used in English conversations. Cross-linguistic comparison of Korean and English occurs again in Jihyun and Chris's dialogue when Chris tries to complete the sentence 'I went to the professor's office in order to……' in Korean (Episode 6).

Jihyun suggests Chris to use the phrase 'to consult the professor', which Chris finds awkward since the expression is rarely used in English. The discussion develops into a cross-cultural comparison of college culture in the U.S. and Korea, and Jihyun's learning of a more common way of explaining a reason for visiting a professor's office in English.

The cross-linguistic LREs in the data illustrate that language-exchange dialogues foster opportunities of inquiry, negotiation, and noticing of cross-linguistic similarities and differences of English and Korean, and that such cross-linguistic comparisons of the two languages may facilitate L2 development and serve as instances of L2 learning in progress.

V. Discussion & Conclusion

The findings in this study show that language-exchange interactions can provide a useful context for language learning. It was found that LREs that take place during language-exchange talk are mostly learner-initiated and that unless learners act as active, engaged, and autonomous agents who can draw their partners' attention to specific language items in English to spark metalinguistic talk, it may be difficult for them to create a context for their target language learning in language-exchange interaction. Among the different types of LREs discovered in the data, sociopragmatic and cross-linguistic LREs demonstrate the potential benefits of language-exchange programs as they rarely occur in other NS-NNS interaction-based studies. It seems that the context of language-exchange interaction helps students to create an atmosphere of confidence and trust as they alternate the roles of learner and native speaker, which makes it easier for them to openly talk about appropriate usage of language and involve in cross-linguistic discussion.

This study contributes to the field of SLA by offering empirical evidence about language use and LREs in a language-exchange context. The study also contributes to the body of literature that has suggested that LREs create a context for language learning. Future studies on language-exchange should examine whether engaging in LREs during language-exchange interactions lead to acquisition of the linguistic features discussed and how language instructors could support their students to become successful tandem learners.

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Tae youn Ahn
Department of English
University of Washington
Phone: 070-7555-2067
Email: ahntyn@gmail.com

Biodata
Tae youn Ahn is a doctoral candidate at the University of Washington. She is currently working on her dissertation on language and cultural learning through Korean-English language-exchange interactions. Her research interests include language learning through collaborative dialogue, sociocultural theory, qualitative research, and discourse analysis.

Integration of e-learning and m-learning in teaching EFL in Japan

Hiroyuki Obari (Aoyama Gakuin University)

eLPCO (Research Center for e-Learning Professional Competency) has developed its own learning management system, the Cyber Campus system (CCS), in collaboration with Japan Unisys. CCS, which is capable of providing Podcasting, enables m-learning using an i-Pod or other MP3 devices including mobile phone, while integration with the CALL system enriches the contents of e-Learning. Further, Computerized Assessment System for English Communication (CASEC) provides examinees with immediate test results, and encourages students to review their study. This integration of e-learning and m-learning fosters autonomous learning, and students made a great progress in English proficiency test of CASEC, which improved from 540 (SD 92.8) for the pre-test in April of 2008, to 587 (SD 76.4) for the post-test in January of 2009 after 24 weeks of lessons.

This presentation is to investigate the effectiveness of integrating many IT related teaching materials and tools such Prontest software, e-Learning materials for TOEIC Practice with the help of mobile learning tools like i-Pod and mobile phones. The first empirical study was carried out from April 14 to July 14 of 2008 for about three months in the CALL room. 63 students were required to use this software called "Hatsuon Ryoku" for about 30 minutes while the rest of the lesson was spent on studying the World Heritage using the internet with particular emphasis on PowerPoint presentation. "Hatsuon Ryoku" is software that trains English pronunciation and listening.

The CASEC (Computer English Test) was used to assess the overall English proficiency as a pre-test in April and as a post-test in July. After the first semester, the progress of CASEC was measured and several parameters mentioned above between pre and post recorded readings of each student were checked.

The first study concluded that the average score of CASEC improved from 540(SD92.8) in April to 579(SD 77.3) in July after having used this software for the first semester. The differences of parameters between pre and post-recorded readings indicated that using this software helped students to improve English pronunciation and overall English proficiency.

The second empirical study was carried out from September 22 of 2008 to January 19 of 2009. In the second study, e-Learning materials for TOEIC practice was introduced with 60 lessons while students were mainly engaged in continuously giving a PowerPoint Presentation and they also did a digital storytelling over a second semester. Students were required to use a mobile phone to study some English words and phrases to prepare for presentation and digital storytelling. CASEC Test was also used to assess their English proficiency. The average score of CASEC improved from 569 (SD 75.1) in September to 587(SD 76.4) in January 19 of 2009. Both digital storytelling and presentation were assessed for grading with a particular emphasis on prosody.

The two studies concluded that the average score of CASEC improved over 24 weeks lessons with integration of variety of IT tools and software while they learned how to give an effective presentation and made a digital storytelling with a proper accent. In this presentation I will demonstrate how to integrate various IT tools and software to teach EFL in this ubiquitous age.

Hiroyuki Obari, Ph.D.
Computer Science
Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo, Japan
Phone: N/A
E-mail: N/A

Biodata:
Hiroyuki Obari is a professor who obtained his M.A. in TESOL from Columbia University and his Ph.D. in Computer Science from University of Tsukuba. He is currently teaching at Aoyama Gakuin University and is a visiting researcher at AIST in Japan. He spent 8 months as a visiting research fellow at University of Oxford from 2007 to 2008.

A New Path to Second Language Learning

Steve Lee (Chungdahm ESL R&D Center, Korea)

This presentation demonstrates the rationale for the need for development of critical thinking skills in ESL classrooms and presents examples of a curriculum and classroom activities to promote critical thinking.

The English language program developed at the Chungdahm ESL R&D Center is based on the Critical Language Learning Methodology. The Critical Language Learning Methodology is an English teaching and learning methodology focused on improving critical thinking skills as well as English language skills; necessary characteristics of a global leader. In a region such as East Asia, where the opportunity to use everyday English is limited, business English and English used in specialized professional service areas such as education are needed more than everyday conversational skills. With this particular English usage environment in mind, the core purpose of the Chungdahm ESL Methodology is to go beyond teaching everyday conversational English to teaching students how to select, analyze, and evaluate the substantial facts from a flood of information and express those ideas effectively in English, which is the lingua franca of the global era. In addition, to the extent that society has become complicated, we are faced with many situations where important and rational choices must be made. Under these circumstances, a person lacking critical thinking skills can only indiscriminately accept all provided information or passively follow the decisions of others. However, those with the necessary critical thinking skills are able to select and understand the information they need, analyze and evaluate that information, and make rational decisions. Therefore, we need to develop students' abilities to critically consider content from a variety of fields, such as politics, social studies, culture, and the sciences, and to effectively present their independent ideas, using English as the medium,

The six major levels of Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive domain were selected for Critical Language Learning lessons to promote critical thinking skills: Remembering, Understanding, Applying, Analyzing, Evaluating, and Creating. The lessons especially focus on the high-order thinking skills, such as Analyzing (the ability to separate specified information into components and grasp inter-component relationships), Evaluating (the ability to assess the relative value of information for a specific purpose from diverse viewpoints), and Creating (the ability to synthesize various information and develop one's own independent knowledge).

For example, in order to improve the Understanding skill, students learn to understand and organize reading materials through the activities of Skimming, Scanning, Paraphrasing, and Summary. In addition, in order to improve the Applying skill, students learn specific information and then practice applying that learned information to other reading materials. Furthermore, project-based activities are used to enhance the higher-order skills of Analyzing, Evaluating and Creating. These project-based activities lead students through the process of analyzing provided information, assessing the relevance of the information to the given task from a variety of viewpoints, solidifying their own independent viewpoint, and then producing a final product.

Strategy and L2 Reading Perception: A case study of a Korean Student's Reading Difficulty in US classrooms

Jihyun Jeon (Pusan National University)

I. Introduction

Strategies have been reported to play an important role in L2 learners' reading success in academic contexts. Thus, many studies have been conducted to examine the effectiveness of strategy use on L2 reading (Clapham, 1998; Hudson, 1998; Taillerfer & Pugh, 1998; Magliano & Trabasso, 1999; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Lau & Chan, 2003; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004). However, most of these studies have focused on whether there is an effect of strategy use on reading comprehension of L2 learners or not with a questionnaire including a number of strategy items on the basis of the quantitative statistical analysis results. Few studies have attempted to investigate actual strategies L2 learners employ by listening to their voices and observing their strategic behaviors for reading during a certain period of time. In addition, most reading studies employed reading materials which can be general to L2 learners not specifically academic setting. This study intended to provide detailed descriptions of an L2 learner's reading difficulty in connection with reading strategy use and attempted to provide valuable insights into explaining the complexity of L2 learners' reading difficulty.

II. Methodology

1. Research Questions

The following questions were addressed in this case study:

a) What reading strategies does an L2 learner use in comprehending texts in English?
b) Is an L2 learner aware of the types of strategy she actually uses? Is her awareness of strategy type identical with what she actually uses while reading?
c) What are the possible factors affecting the strategy use of an L2 learner?

2. Participant

"Grace" (a pseudo-name of the participant for this study) is a 25-year-old Korean female and came to the USA two years ago to start studying Pharmacy as un undergraduate major. She already received her BS degree in Zootechny. Like most Korean students, she received English education through the public education system for six years.

3. Materials

The materials for the data collection included a questionnaire about strategy use, three short articles for a think-aloud, two books of the participant for book analysis to figure out actual strategies the participant utilized for L2 reading comprehension, and an interview questionnaire. The questionnaire about strategy use was developed based on the strategy list from Jimenez at al (1996). The interview questionnaire contained 15 questions which were categorized into roughly three themes: conception/ perception of reading, strategies, and reading ability. Three short articles from different book sources were selected for think-aloud mainly to figure out which strategies Grace actually prefers to use when reading L2 materials. Consideration was taken to make the reading materials compatible with texts Grace actually encountered in academic contexts, containing a wide range of vocabularies, pictures, and graphics and similar themes and topics with her academic major. Grace's two books were analyzed to figure out her reading approaches and behavior: ‘Immunology' and 'A pharmacist's story'. These two books were selected through the examination of her academic curriculum and personal conversation about reading to analyze Grace’s strategy use for academic reading.

III. Conclusion

The findings showed that Grace used all three types of strategies classified by Jimenez at al (1996). Grace used four types of text-initiated strategy (i.e., attention on unknown vocabulary, decoding, the organization of the ttext, and re-read), five types of reader-initiated strategy (i.e., invoking prior knowledge, evaluating, monitoring comprehension, translating, and utilizing graphics or pictures) and two types of interactive strategy (i.e., inferring and asking questions). Grace showed almost equal use of all three strategy types. The findings of this study also revealed that the strategies Grace actually used for L2 reading are somewhat different from those she is thinking she uses for L2 reading comprehension and that Grace's selection of strategy was affected by three main factors, that is, language difference, motivation, and level of English proficiency.

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Jihyun Jeon
Department of English Language and Literature
Pusan National University
Phone: 051-510-1037
Email: jeon.24@gmail.com

Biodata

Jihyun Jeon is currently working at Pusan National University as a part-time lecturer. She received her Ph.D. in the program of Foreign and Second Language Education at the Ohio State University. Her research interest has centered on the factors affecting L2 listening comprehension and listening assessment.

Effects of an Overseas Language Program: A Case Study of an Integrated Program for Korean Elementary and Middle School Students in Singapore

Hyun Yang (International Graduate School of English)

I. Introduction

In Korea, an increasing number of primary and secondary students are joining 'English camps', short-term intensive English programs, during school holidays. This trend may have come from the traditional belief that second language learning can be more efficient in 'immersion' situations, compared to learning in the formal classroom settings in institutions (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004). Immersion in this context means the environment in which the learners are exposed to the target language full-time. This study of an overseas English camp, or a short-term study abroad program for young students, aims to look firstly into any linguistic gains of the participants. Secondly, this study will investigate the students' perceptions of the program, especially the school integration. Lastly, the perceptions of English as an international language will be looked into. The research questions are as follows.

1. What is the change, if any, in reading and listening proficiency of participants after the overseas English language program?
2. What are the students' perceptions toward the study abroad environment?
   1) How do they find the program and/or integration at the host school in terms of value for language learning?
   2) What are the difficulties they have during the program, especially at the host school?

II. Method

1. Participants and Setting

The participants consisted of 19 elementary and middle school students who took part in a three-week English camp in Singapore, in the summer of 2008. The camp was organized by a private educational agency located in Seoul, which recruited the participants through advertisements in a nationwide newspaper and by the internet. Thus, the students were from all over Korea

The three-week course consisted of integration into a public primary school in Singapore, ESL classes and some excursions. Every weekday, the students attended regular classes from 07:30 to 1:30 at the local school in different host classrooms, in pairs to groups of four; after which, they attended three hours of ESL classes by themselves at a language school. The ESL class teachers were all British. During the weekends, they went on excursions. All the participants stayed at a resort with three Korean chaperones who were also teachers of English throughout the period. Every evening they had a one hour session of English diary writing, taught by the Korean teachers.

2. Instruments

The materials used in the quantitative aspect for the study were an English reading/listening proficiency test (TOEIC Bridge) and two questionnaires. The questionnaires were all presented in Korean. Qualitative methods included non-participant observation, field notes, interviews with instructors and students, and daily reports written by the teachers in charge of the students.

3. Procedures

On the first day of the program in Singapore, the students took the proficiency test, and then were asked to complete a questionnaire concerning their background. They were not told, however, that they were to do the same tests at the end of the program. Each weekday during the three-week program, all the students attended individually assigned host classrooms, and then were divided into two separate classes for the ESL classes in the afternoon. The ESL teachers were both from the United Kingdom. They also had a one-hour English writing session every evening provided by the Korean teachers and chaperones. During the weekend, half-day or full-day excursions were organized to different places in Singapore. On the last evening before their departure from Singapore, the students took the same proficiency test given as the pretest, and a questionnaire regarding their perception to the school program. The students were given 60 minutes for each of the proficiency tests and 10-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. An analysis of variance with repeated measures was employed on the pre- and post scores of the proficiency tests, and on some questions repeated both in the pre- and post questionnaires in order to test the significance of any changes in the scores. The scores were the dependent variables in the analysis and time was the within-subjects variable.

III. Results

1. Proficiency

The results of English proficiency tests answer the first research question concerning any possible change in the participants' L2 proficiency before and after the program. The L2 listening comprehension score change was not statistically significant, while the gain in reading was statistically meaningful as can be seen.

2. Difficulties

Whereas the students showed a generally favorable attitude toward the value of the program, an analysis of the interviews revealed some difficulties perceived by the participants concerning school their integration experiences, as wells as the benefits of the integration into a host school. Even though the Korean students were integrated into classes one or two grades lower than their grades in Korea, in consideration of their proficiency gap, they seem to have found it difficult to learn something from classes conducted in English. Although a few (mostly advanced learners) welcomed the classes in English, and made the most of them, most of the students were often distracted and were even left out of some special activities such as official exams. At other times, there was a simple lack of attention by the host teacher.

IV. Discussions

1. Proficiency

Compared to a usual study abroad program, three weeks might be too short a time to observe any change in proficiency. However, the significant increase in reading comprehension score suggests there can be change even in a short-term program. This is consistent with findings from previous studies that even short programs can lead to gains (Churchill & DuFon, 2006). Despite little interest in reading skills due to the bias in study abroad programs, and expected gains in aural/oral skills, studies on reading also have consistently found that study abroad students improve reading proficiency in the target language. One explanation is that this improvement could be the result of "the frequency and range of experiences in interacting with text in a naturalistic environment" (Churchill & DuFon, 2006, p. 3).

Insignificance in listening scores, on the other hand, requires some discussion. Findings from qualitative research seem to provide some clues for understanding the possible causes of this insignificance. According to the results of the interviews, logs and observation, most of the students

seem to have had difficulties, at least initially, in understanding the Singapore accent. The unfamiliar accents of their Singapore teachers, adding to general lack of meaning negotiations between the Korean students and the teachers, aggravated the difficulty of following the classes. Additionally, the participants were observed to have had a negative attitude toward the accent. Although Munro and Derwing (1995) suggested that a strong foreign accent does not always reduce intelligibility, it is possible to assume that it must have taken some time for the beginning level of students to become accustomed to the unfamiliar accent; thus, failing to receive enough quality listening practice to show any difference between the pre- and post listening comprehension tests, which were recorded with North American accents.

2. School Integration

While the students expressed their general satisfaction with the program as a whole, and agreed that they found the school integration valuable in learning English, interviews with them showed problems in a few instances, especially concerning the formal instruction at school. First, most of the students said they often found the classes, conducted in English, too difficult to follow mainly because of the language gap. Singapore has used English as an official language and a medium of instruction in schools since 1987, with English now having the status of a first language. As such, it is not surprising that the average Singapore student's proficiency was much higher than those of the Korean students, all of whom had learned English as a foreign language at home. Some words, especially technical terms in some content classes such as science or math, which are rarely taught in English classes in Korea, could easily have caused frustration for the Korean elementary and middle students.

While most of the students' difficulties stem from the classes at the local school, it is hard to deny that the integration program provided the Korean students with opportunities to interact informally outside classes while at school. The data from areas of help provided by the school program, shows that most of the Korean students regarded the school integration as a valuable opportunity to make friends of Singaporeans and learn their culture. Despite some negative attitude toward the Singapore accent, most participants were reported or observed to have enjoyed the company of English-speaking Singaporeans at school and the opportunities to communicate in English. It seems that these experiences have played a major role in forming the students' generally favorable impressions on the school integration.

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Name: Hyun Yang
Department of Education: ELT Materials Development
International Graduate School of English
Phone: 010-7671-1440
Email: engkengk@igse.ac.kr

Biodata

YANG, Hyun is currently in an MA program in the Department of ELT Materials Development, International Graduate School of English (IGSE), after finishing undergraduate course in English education at Seoul National University. His interests include English immersion/submersion, study

abroad, English camps and extensive reading. He can be contacted at engkengk@igse.ac.kr or engk@daum.net.

I Can’t Use English in the Classroom—My Students Don’t Speak English

Donna M. Brinton (Soka University of California)

In this demonstration, Donna Brinton responds to those teachers who ask how they can maximize the use of the target language in their English class. The session begins with a brief review of the literature on the topic of target language use in the classroom. Then, using an L2 in which the participants are not fluent, the presenter demonstrates how a language lesson can be successfully taught using only the L2 throughout the lesson and how, at the end of the lesson, participants can successfully participate in an L2 problem-solving activity. The lesson concludes with a discussion of strategies teachers can use to maximize their own and students’ use of the target language. Participants have a chance to debrief and comment on the experience.

Vocabulary and Content-Based Communication Activities

Paul Nation (Victoria University of Wellington)

Recent research on vocabulary learning shows that the written input to a task has a major effect on the vocabulary learning that occurs during a task. This learning is influenced by the conditions under which the vocabulary is met and used. By giving careful attention to the design of tasks, teachers can have a major influence on the vocabulary learning that occurs during such tasks. This workshop shows teachers how to design and adapt content-based communication tasks so that vocabulary learning can occur while the learners engage in an interesting communicative task. By the end of the workshop participants should be able to look at a speaking task and make about five changes to it to make it more suitable for vocabulary learning. During the workshop we will look at a range of content-based activities to help vocabulary learning.